

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME LIII * FEBRUARY 1945 * NUMBER 2

Educational News and Editorial Comment

AGAINST COMPULSORY MILITARY TRAINING IN PEACETIME

WHEN this editorial is published, we shall be nearing the end of the first round of the fight over compulsory military service in peacetime. No matter how this round comes out, it is probably only the beginning of a long conflict over national policy with respect to the training of our youth for future wars. The importance of this issue is gradually becoming apparent to us all. It is important both as a problem of education and as a problem of postwar peace policy.

Opposition to the proposal for compulsory military training, though weak at first, has lately become strongly organized under educational and religious leadership. Most of the major organizations of educators have gone on record against the passage of a peacetime compulsory-service bill during the present war. Several important church groups, including the Presbyterians, the Methodists, the Northern Baptists, and the Roman Catholic

archbishops and bishops of the United States, have made public statements against the proposal.

Yet the forces favoring the bill now before Congress are powerful. This plan is the Army's program, and the Army is always potent politically during wartime. The Army is now planning for a peacetime force of approximately a million and a half. Half of this group will consist of members of the regular army, and the other half will consist of from 700,000 to 800,000 boys being trained each year under a compulsory-training scheme. In addition, a large reserve group will be called up for refresher training in the summertime. Another reason that the proposal has a chance of being accepted by the Congress is that the plan is being advanced as an "educational" program with the blessing of President Roosevelt.

Whether compulsory military training is good education is a matter on which educators might be expected to have some judgment. Consequently it

is a severe disappointment to read the recent Research Bulletin of the National Education Association entitled *Superintendents' Opinions on Compulsory Youth Programs*. This bulletin reports the results of a questionnaire filled out by thirteen hundred school superintendents in May, 1944. Eighty-five per cent of these superintendents favored a postwar program of military preparation which shall be more extensive than the pre-war program. Three-fourths of the group said that, if the United States were greatly to increase its pre-war program of military training, the increase should be brought about through compulsory service. Forty per cent of the group favored an immediate decision on this matter rather than waiting until the war is over.

On the other hand, there is some evidence that these men were thinking in terms only of military policy and not of the educational values of military training. The evidence for this lies in the fact that only 1 per cent of the group favored the age of training named in H.R. 3947: "the age of seventeen years, or immediately upon the successful completion of the full course of an accredited high school or preparatory school, *whichever first occurs*." Adoption of this age would mean that very few students would be able to complete the Senior year of high school, and it is clear that the school superintendents are not willing to see a year of military service replace the final year of high school.

However, they are willing to see the first year of college work replaced by a year of military service, even though such a program clearly means that many boys who normally would go to college would forget their college aspirations during their year of military service.

It is the opinion of the writer that many of these same superintendents, if queried on the issue now, would change their stand to one that is more critical of compulsory military training. Undoubtedly they have recently been giving more thought to the matter and have probably contributed to the growing opposition to such a program, or at least they have been influenced by this opposition.

George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, has recently issued the following statement:

The American Council on Education, which comprises in its membership all the major organizations in the field of education, has taken the position that a universal military training program ought not to be adopted until there can be much more information about, and public discussion of the implications of, such a program. To this end we have petitioned the President to consider the appointment of a national commission of representative leaders from industry, agriculture, labor, the church, education, and the Congress, to consider all pertinent matters relating to this exceedingly important proposal. Among them is the relationship of the proposed program to other aspects of national defense, to the educational system, and to the program of international peace through world organization.

William G. Carr, secretary of the Educational Policies Commission, says:

For the duration and six months thereafter, the needs of the armed forces will be met under Selective Service. The proposed year of compulsory military service is therefore a postwar problem, and decision upon it can and should be deferred. Until the postwar international situation is clarified, we do not know whether compulsory military service will help to keep the peace or will endanger it. We do not know whether it will be necessary or unnecessary. The American people have been led to hope that the sacrifices of this war will be justified by an enduring peace. Before we make so radical a departure from our national tradition, we might well wait to see whether these hopes will be realized, particularly since the year of national military service is in no sense a necessity for winning the war.

Nevertheless, in spite of the emergence of strong opposition to compulsory military training in peacetime, there is a real prospect that such a program will be adopted. The reason there is such a probability is that two separate groups of people may favor it for quite different reasons. Some will favor it because they think it is necessary military policy. Others may favor it under the misguided impression that it is a useful educational project, regardless of its military necessity.

There are two basic questions, which should be clearly distinguished: (1) Is compulsory military service good education? (2) Is compulsory military service sound national policy?

The answer to the first question is "No." Putting all our able-bodied

boys at eighteen or nineteen into an army organization for a year is not good education. The educational results of such a program can be foreseen, and they are not pleasant to contemplate.

At the age of eighteen or nineteen, and immediately after high-school graduation for most boys, a boy would report to the Army and spend the next year under the immediate direction of army sergeants, whose job would be to "make a man out of him." The boy would be put indiscriminately into a company with others who happened to appear at camp at the same time. His company would be a democratic, heterogeneous mixture of all social groups.

During most of the year he would be trained in a large army camp somewhere in Texas, Mississippi, or Alabama, where the weather permits year-round outdoor training. Here the boy would have a great deal of common experience with other American boys of all types. He would have a common experience with them in obeying orders and in handling military machines. He would share with others the experiences of "griping" and of "soldiering," which have always meant complaining about food, camp conditions, and the officers, and trying to "get by" with as little work as possible. Other common experiences that the boy would share with his company would be gambling, drinking, and other "common" forms of recreation. He would learn to play poker,

blackjack, and Kelly pool, and to use the latest "line" with the girls. The Army would teach him how to use contraceptives, give him lectures on venereal disease, and warn him to stop at the prophylactic station on his way to and from the nearest town.

The thing would happen that always happens when a society of men only is created by putting all kinds of men together at random and placing them under the authority of other men who have no interest in, or preparation for, the tasks of intellectual and moral education: the lowest common denominator of intellectual, cultural, and moral life would prevail.

To escape from this atmosphere, a few boys would seek out the U.S.O. hostel or its successor, which would carry on a shabby existence, supported feebly by annual drives for funds that would arouse little public interest once the war was over. In contrast to such "respectable" places, cheap commercial amusement places would flourish in the vicinity of the camp. Camp followers of all kinds would ply their trades. Gamblers and prostitutes would prosper.

This kind of educational experience would take the place, for thousands of boys, of a year of college or junior college. Of the boys who now go to college, a considerable fraction would never make the effort if the continuity from high school to college were broken by military training. While there is considerable question concerning the value of the academic work done by a

boy who stays only a year or so. in college, there is no doubt about the value to him of living in the college community. The churches have active programs for college students. The college staff is made up of men and women trained for work with young people. There is plenty of normal companionship with girls of the same social background as that of the boys.

In an effort to provide some continuing education, the Army would encourage boys to take correspondence courses. A few would enrol for such courses, and a very few would stick to their studies at night while their neighbors in the barracks filled the air with noisy talk, obscenities, tobacco smoke, and the excitement of gambling.

Thus may be described the kind of "education" a boy would get in a year of compulsory military service. There are, however, some positive features. The average health of the boys would be improved, if this statement is taken to mean that most boys would gain weight and their muscles would harden and that their teeth would be filled by Army dentists. But these results could be achieved at much less cost by an expanded program of physical education in the schools and a national program of dental service for adolescent boys and girls.

The second major question (Is compulsory military service sound national policy?) is one that deserves serious study. Who knows what kind

of military establishment in this country will be consistent with the international organization for the preservation of peace which we hope will emerge after this war? To say the least, it seems doubtful that an army of a million and a half and the biggest navy in the world will be compatible with the organization of the world for international security. In any case, there is no need of haste to build up a great American army for the next war. Boys who are trained in 1947 will be too old for much active duty in another twenty years, and the world will hardly have recuperated enough from this war to be able to wage another short of twenty years.

It is a tragic fate that we have won for our sons, if we must put them through this kind of experience before the echoes of World War II have died out.

EDUCATION FOR INTERNAL AND INTERNATIONAL PEACE

ONE of the encouraging things about American education is the work that is being done in the related fields of international and intercultural education. Especially in the humanities and the social studies, our high schools and elementary schools are making a really impressive contribution to American citizenship through their work in these areas.

The first and most immediate need is to educate for internal peace. Everybody expects that the years imme-

diately following the war will see serious threats of conflict among racial, cultural, and economic groups in the United States. Consequently what is known as intercultural or intergroup education has attracted wide interest and is the most lively aspect of American education today. Started about fifteen years ago by a few far-seeing persons, the organizations leading the movement for intercultural education are now well organized and fairly well financed.

If our people succeed in going through the next ten years without flagrant discrimination and denial of democratic rights to Negroes, Jews, Mexicans, Japanese-Americans, and other visible minority groups, we shall owe a great debt to our agencies of adult and youth education.

The second need, equally important in the long run, is to educate for international peace. Unfortunately it is difficult at present for American educators to do as much as they might wish in the area of international education. The lack of a clear and specific policy for the promotion of international peace by our own government is the principal cause of difficulty, and the difficulty is aggravated by the power politics of our two principal allies in the war. Thus the teacher who would teach for international peace finds that he cannot be specific about such problems as colonies, the boundaries of Poland, the status of India, the extension of American empire, in-

ternational aviation, limitation of armaments, and an international police force. When no definite proposals are up for discussion, and all the important issues are reserved for private discussion by members of government, and the free spread of information is prevented, the teacher must either confine himself to generalities about international peace or try to guess what will be the specific proposals and issues upon which citizens of a democracy should have intelligent judgment.

In this situation a few schools and colleges have been doing a great deal along two lines. They have been able to deal with inter-American relations in a fairly satisfactory way; for there we have a definite policy, and education figures strongly in that policy. They have also been able to deal in a more vague way with our relations with other parts of the world. The best that can be done is to promote as much sympathetic understanding as possible of such countries as Russia, China, India, France, and the Balkans. It is too early to hope for any intelligent attempt to understand our enemies, though we are making some headway in getting a fair and just view of Italy.

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

Intercultural education is in the air now, and most school systems have committees or individual teachers who are working on teaching materials and methods in this field.

Experimental studies A group of city school systems are working with the assistance of a committee of the American Council on Education. Included in the group are Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Milwaukee, and Canton (Ohio). Howard E. Wilson is chairman of the committee of the American Council on Education which advises on the project. Hilda Taba, of the University of Chicago, is consultant, with her office at 381 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

Another group of city school systems is experimenting in this field under the auspices of the Bureau for Intercultural Education. H. H. Giles is director of this project with offices at 119 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York City, and Stewart E. Cole is associate director on the Pacific coast.

As is true of all new educational undertakings, a great deal of trial and error in classroom practices is going on. This experimentation has not yet been analyzed, nor have its results been made available to others. To aid in extending knowledge concerning the experience of the pioneer schools, the Civic Education Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies plans to publish a yearbook on intercultural education in 1945. Chairman of the yearbook committee is Hilda Taba, and chairman of the Civic Education Committee is Stanley Dimond, of the Detroit public schools.

The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education is collaborating with the American Council on Educa-

tion in a study of intergroup relations in teacher education. The Council will co-operate with selected teacher-education institutions to provide a consultant service and facilitate exchange of ideas. During the February meeting of the Council, there will be a program on the topic of intergroup relations. Next summer an institute will be held for representatives of the selected institutions.

An experimental study is under way this year in the Bloom Township High School at Chicago Heights, Illinois, and in the Thornton Township High School at Harvey, Illinois. This project is sponsored by the Department of Anthropology and the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, with the National Conference of Christians and Jews. A special course is being given in these two schools by Miss Ethel Alpenfels of the Department of Anthropology and Mr. Kenneth Haney of the Bloom Township High School. This is not a course in anthropology, but it uses anthropological content to explain the causes and the effects of racial hatreds and prejudices.

Intercultural workshop "The Contribution of Workshops to Intercultural Education" is the title of an article by Hilda Taba in the February, 1945, issue of *American Unity*, which is published by the Council against Intolerance in America. Dr. Taba was director of the Workshop on Intercultural

Education at Harvard University last summer. She sees in the workshop an instrument for the rapid spread of ideas and practices in intercultural education, and she presents five important tasks for the workshop in this area. Workshop staff members will find her discussion stimulating and highly suggestive for their own future programs.

Negroes in America *The Negro in America* is the title of a Public Affairs Pamphlet summarizing Gunnar Myrdal's study of Negro life in America. Myrdal's book, *An American Dilemma*, has gone through its fourth printing and should be read by every teacher interested in racial problems. The pamphlet will be useful in high-school classes.

Educating Japanese-Americans Race prejudice on the Pacific coast is just as ugly as in Detroit or Mississippi. Now that Japanese-Americans are legally permitted to return to their homes in the coast states, the forces fighting against prejudice in these states will be given the acid test. It is to be hoped that the schools and colleges in those states have done their part.

In the meantime education in the rest of the country has earned credit for doing a good job with the Japanese-Americans, both in the relocation centers and outside. The War Relocation Authority recruited an excellent corps of teachers, who under great

difficulties succeeded in establishing school facilities. In June, 1944, the total enrolment in elementary and secondary schools in relocation centers was 18,060 pupils, out of a total population of about 60,000. Four hundred of the 2,255 high-school graduates went on to college.

Prior to the war some 2,300 Japanese-Americans were concentrated in 74 colleges in three West-coast states. Now about 2,500 Japanese-American students attend 550 institutions in 46 states. These young men and women have made good. A long list of college offices to which they were elected in 1943-44 by their fellow-students includes student-body presidencies at Oberlin, Dakota Wesleyan, Bard, and Haverford.

Spanish-speaking children The Committee on Inter-American Relations in Texas, the University of Texas, in co-operation with the State Department of Education, has sponsored a fact-finding study of school-age children of Latin-American descent in that state. This study is reported in a bulletin entitled *Spanish-speaking Children in Texas*, written by Wilson Little and published by the University of Texas Press. This bulletin gives data on the number, age-grade distribution, and housing for instructional purposes of Latin-American children in the state. One-fifth of the total white scholastic population belong to this group. Ten counties have 75 per cent or more

Latin Americans. The bulletin simply gives facts and waits for the people of Texas to interpret the facts. Some notion of the difficulty of making interpretations is given by the replies of a number of superintendents to the question why Latin Americans were put in separate schools during their earlier school years. One superintendent summed up the mixture of factors which operate when he said:

These children need five or six years of Americanization before being placed with American children. Their standard of living is too low—they are dirty, lousy, and need special teaching in health and cleanliness. They also need special teaching in the English language.

The study found that a majority of the Latin-American children in school are in Grades I, II, and III. Less than half reach Grade IV.

Trends in race relations The Social Science Institute of Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee, publishes a *Monthly Summary of Events and Trends in Race Relations*, which summarizes the materials from various news sources and also synthesizes them in a "Review of the Month."

Books for young Americans A reading list of twenty "Books for Young Americans" has been published by the Chicago Round Table of the National Conference of Christians and Jews, 203 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago 1, Illinois. The books range in interest for every

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age up through high-school years. They vary from *Fair Play* by Munro Leaf for preschool youngsters to Stephen Vincent Benét's *America* for high-school students.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Erling M. Hunt, editor of *Social Education*, writes a very good editorial on the need to orient the school program toward peace, in the October, 1944, issue of the magazine. He says:

As the successes of United Nations' armies on all fronts bring peace nearer, some shifts of emphasis in the school program become necessary. There must, of course, be no relaxing of the war effort until final victory is achieved. War stamps and war bonds must still be purchased, and to the greatest possible extent. The dangers of inflation must still be understood, and programs to prevent inflation must still be supported. The need for rationing must similarly be understood, and rationing regulations accepted. The school population can still do much to advance the collection of paper and can make some contribution to relieving the labor shortage. Social-studies classes can still do much to stimulate such aspects of the war effort.

Even more important, however, as peace draws nearer, is the responsibility of the social studies for developing understanding of the issues and aims of the war and of the problems of the postwar period. . . .

Just as the campaigns of war have necessitated a merging of national resources and leadership in a United Nations organization, so the campaigns of peace will require a similar international organization comprising all the nations and peoples that are committed to the maintenance of peace and human welfare. Thinking and planning about the nature of such an international organization has gone ahead rapidly in re-

cent months. It is a responsibility of social-studies teachers to keep youth who must in the decades ahead take an increasing part in the conduct and support of national and international affairs abreast of such developments. Agreement on details is not to be expected, but information and thoughtful consideration of proposals and choices is indispensable to intelligent and democratic solution of the problems that we must face.

Furthermore, no government, national or international, can endure without a loyal body of citizens who, however much they may differ on specific issues and policies, are basically committed to support of the government. The League of Nations never developed any large body of such citizens, partly because no program of popular education was established to promote intelligent world citizenship. If that fatal error is not to be repeated, a new responsibility devolves upon social-studies teachers.

Information on Russia

The future peace of the world depends heavily on the relations of the United States of America and the Soviet Union. Yet in recent years cultural relations between these two countries have been badly blocked. Certainly the Americans do not know or understand what the Russians are like and what they are doing. Probably the Russians are nearly as ignorant of America as we are of Russia. The whole thing is made into a difficult problem by the fact that Russia is a controversial subject, and things written or said about Russia are often motivated by strong feelings, favorable or unfavorable, toward the Soviet Union. Consequently the effort on the part of teachers and pupils to

learn the facts about contemporary Russia is made extremely difficult.

There have been a few helpful developments, and we may expect more. The teacher who is willing to work hard to bring together teaching materials on the Soviet Union can make use of the following.

The American Review on the Soviet Union resumed publication last November. It is issued by the American Russian Institute, 58 Park Avenue, New York 16, New York. This institute is an American, nonpolitical, membership organization which provides the best center in this country for factual information concerning the Soviet Union. Some articles in the *Review* are written by Americans, and others are translations of Russian literary and news features. The November issue contains, among others, an article on "A Slavic Center for the Library of Congress" by Archibald MacLeish and one on "Soviet City Planning: An Example" by Hans Blumenfeld, a bibliography, and a digest of Russian news.

The *American Sociological Review* devoted its June, 1944, issue to a set of fairly popular articles on the Soviet Union.

The *Information Bulletin of the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* is published three times a week and may be secured free from the Russian Embassy by persons who can make use of it for teaching purposes. While most of the articles in the *Bulletin* are translations of articles written by Russian journalists on the

war and are of about the same small factual value as those written by American war correspondents, there have recently been, in addition, a number of informative articles on schools, science, agriculture, music, theater, and internal affairs in Russia. The teacher can make good use of the *Bulletin* if he will remember to treat it as he would a bulletin issued by the American government in an allied country.

Meet the Soviet Russians is the title of a bulletin prepared by Dora A. Ames, Katrina B. Anderson, Eunice Johns, and others in the Harvard Workshop last summer and issued by the Committee on Publications of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. It presents a résumé of salient facts about the Soviet Union, a useful bibliography, and suggestions for student activities. The bulletin can be used by teachers at all school levels and by pupils in the senior high school.

The National Council of American Soviet-Friendship, 232 Madison Avenue, New York 16, New York, has issued a mimeographed bulletin entitled "Sources for Teaching Materials and Bibliography for Teachers and Students on the Soviet Union."

Junior Red Cross project The American Junior Red Cross has worked out a plan, in co-operation with the United States Office of Education, by which American school children can contribute materials through the Junior

Red Cross for the aid of schools and children in the liberated areas. Contributions of material and money may be made through the schools, and the Junior Red Cross will care for the collection from the schools and the distribution of materials and money.

One of the Junior Red Cross projects is the preparation of gift boxes for shipment overseas. Soap, sewing materials, and school materials are especially useful. Also, through the National Children's Fund, the Junior Red Cross has sent overseas 150,000 four-ounce packages of small sugar-coated chocolate candies. The candy will go mainly to children in England, France, and Italy.

Veterans study abroad A ruling of the United States Veterans Administration provides that men and women discharged from the armed services may use their "G.I." funds to attend schools and colleges in foreign countries. Should any great number of Americans choose to take educational training in foreign countries, it would spread widely the understanding of international affairs and world citizenship among our people.

The moral equivalent of war The *Journal of the National Education Association* for December, 1944, does a service by reprinting William James's famous essay, "The Moral Equivalent of War." Though published thirty-five

years ago, this essay has retained its relevance as well as its vigor. James suggested a conscription of the whole youthful population to fight against the difficulties which beset our society, thus preserving in the midst of a pacific civilization the manly virtues that are said to come from war.

Music records A full account of phonograph records of music for North and South America is written by Charles Seeger, chief of the Music Division, Pan American Union, in the November, 1944, issue of the *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*. The author lists a number of guides to commercial records and then discusses the progress that has been made in noncommercial recording of folk music and the collection of such records. He has the following to say about the various collections:

Of the international archives perhaps the first to get under way was the Gabinete de Musicología Indígena in the Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales in Buenos Aires under the direction of Carlos Vega, well-known collector and folklorist. It contains folk as well as primitive materials, over four thousand items on records and in notation, and a collection of instruments and photographs. While national folklore of Argentina naturally fills a large part of the archive there is an abundance of material from Chile, Bolivia, Peru, and Paraguay.

The Archive of American Folk Song in the Music Division of the Library of Congress was founded upon a strictly United States of America basis in 1928. It was not long, however, before material from elsewhere began to be deposited upon its

shelves. The Archive was first under the direction of the folklorist Robert W. Gordon and later John A. and Alan Lomax collected the bulk of the material. At present it is directed by Dr. Benjamin A. Botkin. Not counting commercial disks or miscellaneous radio transcriptions, the direct recordings of folk and primitive music run up well beyond 7,500 disks and comprise approximately 30,000 separate items. The Archive has established exchange with other collections and has upon occasion loaned machines and blank disks to collecting expeditions. Material, while preponderantly United States folk music, comes also from Mexico, Panama, the Bahama Islands, Canada, Haiti, Dutch Guiana, Brazil, Trinidad, Uruguay, Argentina, Chile, and Peru.

One of the finest collections of primitive music is that in the Department of Anthropology of Columbia University under the direction of Dr. George Herzog. It comprises substantial collections from Brazil and Haiti, as well as from the United States and other parts of the world.

The Inter-American Institute for Folklore Research recently set up at the Inter-American University in Panama has begun an international archive. This Institute is under the direction of Dr. Myron Schaefer.

Of the national archives especially to be mentioned is that of the National Museum at Ottawa, Canada, under the direction of Marius Barbeau. It contains the largest collection of French-American folk music. The collections of Brazilian music in the Museo Nacional in Rio de Janeiro under the direction of Roquete Pinto and in the Discoteca Pública Municipal de São Paulo directed by Oneyda Alvarenga are outstanding. Luiz Heitor has established a center for folklore research in the Schola de Música of the University of Brazil which will become an archive in due time. The University of Chile has begun a national archive.

SCIENTISTS OF TOMORROW

THE Fourth Annual Science Talent Search conducted by the Science Clubs of America for the Westinghouse Scholarships is now under way. This project is attracting more attention each year, and many teachers and students will be interested in the forty essays written by finalists in the 1944 competition and published under the title *Scientists of Tomorrow* by Science Service, 1719 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. From among fifteen thousand high-school Seniors who competed, these forty students were awarded scholarships totaling \$11,000.

Twelve girls and twenty-eight boys were selected for the final elimination, which occurs each year during a week's institute in Washington, D.C. Winners of the two major awards of \$2,400 were Amber Charles Davidson of Wyoming and Anne Hagopian of New York City. One of the eight winners of a \$400 award was a fifteen-year-old Negro girl, Nancy Agnes Durant, of Washington, D.C.

Contestants take a science-aptitude examination, submit their school record and personal data, and write a scientific essay. The number who completed all these steps last year was 2,931. The winners are selected by a committee of three judges: Professors Harlow Shapley, Harold A. Edgerton, and Stuart H. Britt.

The University of Wisconsin, in co-operation with the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters, has established a Junior Academy of Sci-

ence for youth of Wisconsin. To supervise the work of the Junior Academy and to encourage scientific work at the pre-college level, Dr. John W. Thomson, Jr., has been appointed assistant professor of botany at the University. He is chairman of a committee of high-school science teachers which will relate the work of science clubs to the Academy. This is the twenty-fourth Junior Academy of Science to be established in the United States.

ANOTHER UNIT IN THE PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN LIFE SERIES

THE twenty-first source unit in the series being put out by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies is entitled *Urban and Rural Living*. Each of these resource units for teachers provides an analysis of a social problem by an eminent social scientist and a set of teaching aids prepared by a master-

teacher. From such materials the teacher can build his own teaching unit. The unit can be bought from the national office of either of the two organizations, at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Author of the analysis of *Urban and Rural Living* is Louis Wirth, of the University of Chicago, one of the great authorities on urbanism. Ray Lussenhop, of the Austin High School, Chicago, has prepared the teaching aids.

The continuous co-operation of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies through the period of five years during which the series has been developed is in itself an interesting and noteworthy thing. Credit should be given to Paul B. Jacobson, now superintendent of schools at Davenport, Iowa, for carrying the project through from the beginning as chairman of the directing committee.

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, professor of education and secretary of the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago. FRANKLIN BOBBITT, professor emeritus of education at the University of Chicago, in the first of two articles on the post-war curriculum, describes two opposing conceptions of education, the functional and the academic. GEORGE E. SCHLESSER, assistant professor of education, and C. W. YOUNG, professor of psychology, both at Colgate University, identify the various study and work habits that are functions of intelligence and those that make for achievement regardless of intelligence. F. K. SCHAEFER, assistant professor in the College of Commerce at the State University of Iowa, discusses the place of foreign area study in general education and shows how foreign area study can be of value in integrating the social studies and in helping the student better to understand his own civilization. ROALD F. CAMPBELL, director of the William M. Stewart School at the University of Utah, presents data concerning the educational and social status of a group of emergency and regular teachers who attended summer school at the University of Utah last year. The selected references on the subject fields have been prepared

by DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, instructor in the social sciences and adviser in the College at the University of Chicago; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago, and Jane Blair, teacher of mathematics and director of testing at Waukegan Township High School, Waukegan, Illinois; G. E. HAWKINS, chairman of the Department of Mathematics at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois; FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education at the University of Washington; EDITH P. PARKER, associate professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago.

Reviewers of books DONALD M. MACKENZIE, technical assistant

to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. WILLIAM G. WHITFORD, associate professor of art education at the University of Chicago. THOMAS H. ALLEN, student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, on leave from his position as principal of the Peabody School, Fort Smith, Arkansas. NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago.

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THE POSTWAR CURRICULUM: THE FUNCTIONAL VERSUS THE ACADEMIC PLAN

FRANKLIN BOBBITT

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WHAT the American school curriculum will be after the war, and what it ought to be, are two quite different things.

What the curriculum will be is fairly easy to predict, since we know the power of the operative and pre-determining influences. We know, for example, (1) the subject matter that teachers are prepared to teach; (2) the methods that they are prepared and predisposed to use; (3) the kinds of textbooks that are available; (4) the curriculum and methods that are practically predetermined by the nature of those textbooks; (5) the nature of the tests that teachers are prepared to use; (6) the character of the teaching that is practically compelled by the nature of the tests; (7) the conception of education, as a whole and in its several aspects, that has been deeply and irremediably implanted in the minds of teachers and laymen; (8) the controlling assumptions of those who train teachers for all the age levels; (9) the nature of the standards set up by state departments of education; (10) the power of college-entrance demands on high schools and of college-graduation requirements; (11) the influence of the accrediting agencies; (12) the limited fraction of

program time that can be allotted to each portion of the work; (13) the influence of financial limitations upon sizes of classes, teaching materials, character of personnel, and about everything else; (14) the expectations and insistences of parents and general community; (15) the momentum of long-operative administrative procedures; and (16) the unresponsive inertness of institutions that have drifted from their social moorings.

These all-powerful influences will compel the postwar program to be, in substance, a direct and little-changed continuation of the pre-war program. The constructive thought, the effort, and the modification of those obdurate conditions, which alone could lay the foundations of progress, have been mostly in abeyance.

Numerous shifts, rearrangements, and re-patterings of curriculum materials will be made. New fashions will be heralded as fundamental advances; but, like waves blown up by fresh breezes, they are but superficial and transient. There is great show on the surface, but the substance of things remains the same. In spite of the enormous labors of curriculum workers during the past three decades, in spite of the vast and impressive-look-

ing libraries of documents that they have prepared, the real substance of the educative process has been but little changed. When tinkering was the best we could do under the favorable conditions of peace, it is scarcely to be hoped that we shall do better, or even as well, during the distractions and dislocations of war.

In the efficacious methods developed in army schools, the life of the process has been the vigorous *intention to use* the things taught and to master them merely as a first step in using them. *Function has been the purpose, the method, the result, and the test.* After the war, when the teaching falls back into the academic atmosphere where "function" is only a word for decorating our discussions, and not an actuality, and where subjects are learned not for use but for possession, then this powerful war motive can no longer vitalize the process—and when the life of the process is gone, the process stops. Teachers are then forced at once to fall back on the motives and methods that experience has proved most suitable for use in the relaxed atmosphere of academic aimlessness.

From the army program, minor new features may be retained and assimilated into the academic program; but, except as they are consonant and assimilable, they will speedily disappear. We cannot, then, enumerate the army program as one of the powerfully predetermining influences. The more efficient it has been, the more its

spirit and purposes have differed from those that operate in purely academic programs.

Under present conditions it is too much to expect the profession to see that the functioning of driving purposes is the essence of any vital educative process and that the army type of plan can be continued only by finding and using a peacetime kind of functioning that is fully vitalized by purpose, desire, and intention.

URGENCY OF THE RESPONSIBILITY

In social affairs, recent years have been the most fast-moving in our history. The coming decade promises even greater speed. But speed of social change is good only when the change is in right directions. At the steering wheel, then, there must be sound understanding of the road ahead and undeviating control by that understanding. Any other kind of guidance will end in wreckage.

The faster the world moves, the greater becomes the responsibility of education to make equally rapid advance, since education is responsible for equipping the population with the indispensable instrument of guidance. This obligation calls upon the profession to smash through the inert and resistant conditions and influences as did our armies before the German wall. The danger is as threatening. The need is as great. The obligation can be fulfilled if the profession is willing to make the necessary effort.

TWO OPPOSED CONCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION

In the field of education there are operating at present two basically opposed conceptions of what education is and what it is expected to do. One of these we may call the *functional* conception of education; the other, the *academic*. The functional plan operates most fully in the areas of education for literacy, for vocations, and for the wide array of matters misnamed "extra-curriculum." The academic plan is dominant in most of the other portions of the curriculum.

In their pure forms, the two plans differ in almost every particular. They are as repugnant to each other as oil and water. A better figure, as may appear later, is the contrariety of light and darkness. Though both plans operate in our elementary and secondary education, the functional plays a minor role; the academic, the dominant part.

THE FUNCTIONAL CONCEPTION

The functional conception of education begins with those functions in which men and women need to be proficient in living satisfying and worthy lives. The single purpose of such education is to make people proficient in doing just those things.

It recognizes that there are various areas of human living and that in each area the activities are numerous and diverse. Some of the areas can be fairly well defined: physical living and health care, emotional living, intel-

lectual living, association, citizenship, vocation, family life, religious life, intercommunication, recreation, and education. Since human life is organic, these areas overlap and intermingle in all sorts of ways. Education cannot cut them apart from one another.

The functions in these areas are not vague general things. Quite the reverse—each is wholly specific. For each person, they are the particular things that he does in his particular situation, in his particular manner, and for his particular purposes. In total, there are thousands of kinds of things, each kind forming a life-series of repetitions. In character, they may be superior, mediocre, inferior, or destructive. Functional education is accomplished simply by keeping all of them wholesome all of the time—so far, of course, as the inevitable uncertainties permit.

It is by exercise of function that one becomes proficient in performance. In general outline, the process is about as follows. When the growing individual arrives at the age when he should begin to perform any needful function, let him see how it is done, and let him begin to perform it in the manner appropriate to his age, nature, and situation. Let him thereafter continue to perform it as occasion requires, always holding it to such quality, form, amount, and manner of guidance as best meet his needs. Thus he gets the succession of repetitions under way and sets his course.

As he advances, let him then gradually improve his performance as much as his needs require. Let him employ this procedure in achieving and maintaining proficiency in every continuity of functions that makes up the life-process.

The entire process, let it be noted, is stated in terms of what the pupil does. He educates himself. His needs are back of the process. His understanding of his needs—if not at first, then as early as practicable—guides the process. His valuations and desires provide the motive power that pushes him to the effort. He has the satisfaction of harvesting the results and therein the inner impulsion to repeat and to continue the process. He is judge of the adequacy of the performance and of the results. He sets the standards and makes application of them.

This education of the free pupil for life as a free man is not a thing that can be merely given to him by benevolent persons, by teachers, or by textbooks. Only by living the process can he have it. Only by living the whole of it can he have the whole of it. There is wholeness of functioning only when within himself there is the operation of sense of need, of motive, of purpose, of guiding understanding, of anticipation of results, of desires, of intentions, of effort, of satisfactions, and of longing for the repetitional continuity—all going on at once in the doer. The ingredients of wholesome func-

tional education are exactly those of free wholesome living.

Let it be remembered, however, that the pupil is an immature actor in a mature and complex world. His knowledge of needs, processes, and results is immature; likewise, his valuations, desires, emotional propulsions, satisfactions, and his power to exercise effort and self-control. His environment, then, has to be shaped and tempered to the form appropriate to his stage of maturity. What he cannot yet do well enough without help, he is to do well enough with help. Parents, teachers, and other associates set the stage for his performance and give the amount and kind of help that his degree of immaturity requires. Sometimes he needs positive help, as, for example, patterns of doing and information for self-guidance; sometimes, negative, as warnings, prohibitions, reproofs, and deterrents; and sometimes he needs prodding as reinforcement to an immature and unformed will by way of helping him to overcome inner resistances and thus to set him free. He is to be provided with the conditions of freedom to follow the right ways, but not those of freedom to follow the ways of slackness or of error.

We should keep it clear that functional education—as in the vocational area, for example—is the kind that involves the maximum of responsibility on the part of pupil, teacher, and parents. As between “hard” and “soft,” while the functional plan is

most satisfying to the pupil after he gets it properly under way, it is the hardest. It makes him live most fully and most keenly. It is the strenuous way. After all, there is no escaping the fact that excellence is achieved only with great labor; and the higher the excellence, the greater the effort required. Also, the higher the excellence, the greater the satisfactions that propel the effort. They make the plan workable.

Nothing here said implies that any of these things will work perfectly. Nothing human is perfect. Human functions are performed normally only when they are performed imperfectly. All that can be expected of either child or adult is that he do his reasonable best under the circumstances. For this, there can be no improved substitute.

An all-round right functioning builds an all-round right personality. Right physical functioning builds the sound physique. The right intellectual functioning that generously explores, actually, through reading and other activities, the realities of the world in their countless ramifications and manifestations gradually builds the ripened understanding. Normal emotional functioning within the situations where emotions naturally arise matures the emotional propensities. For the novice to rise through the successive levels of apprentice functioning creates the master worker. In everything, what a person does makes him what he is.

Of course Nature starts persons out with differing natures and possibilities. But in the powers and performances of civilized persons—in language, vocation, recreation, understanding, and the like—a man's nature, unaided by functioning, carries the individual but a little way. Nature gives him a start and lets him build himself by what he does. He remains 100 per cent his own nature; but, equally, he becomes 100 per cent the way that that nature is shaped.

ACADEMIC CONCEPTION

In the academic plan in its pure form, the teacher's thought begins, not with the twenty-four-hours-a-day human living by young and old, but with the conventional school subjects as embodied in the textbooks. His task, as he conceives it, is to put the pupils into possession of those subjects. A pupil is in sufficient possession of any subject when he can pass the tests. When the record shows that he has passed in enough subjects, he is pronounced educated, and papers are given him testifying to that fact.

The tests assume only temporary possession of the body of subject matter. They are given during and at the ends of the courses. As is well known, unused information, memorized for no purpose but to have it, speedily fades and disappears. For this reason no test of permanent possession is given. It is all too evident that the possession of the information is impermanent.

Except in the case of education for literacy or for a calling, the question is scarcely ever asked what a person is to do with a subject or even whether he is ever to do anything with it. Much less is there any thought of making him proficient at the time in using the accumulating information for any current life-purpose. He is merely to keep this information until the tests are passed, and then to keep his diploma to show inquisitive authorities that he once had it.

Academic education begins in the classroom, and it ends in the classroom. The young lady science teacher, brought up in the city and never having lived on a farm, when required because of her specialization in science to teach the farm boys' class in agriculture, may do an entirely satisfactory kind of academic teaching. She has only to sit on one side of the table with her book open while the boys sit on the other side with their books closed. She need have no real knowledge of farming. Her textbookish knowledge is all that she needs. Her tests are reliable measures of the degree in which each pupil has acquired possession of the prescribed subject matter. She has only to measure the language knowledge of the pupils against the language knowledge of the textbook. She can easily know when they have reached the required degree of memorization and then can pronounce them "educated" in that subject.

As academic teacher, she has no

concern with what the boys do, or do not do, with that knowledge. Their using it, their not using it, or even whether it is usable, has nothing to do with what she teaches or how she teaches it. Detachment from function is complete.

She need not inquire whether the class work is so related to their current farm work at home as to awaken the driving power of interest. The academic plan does not depend on the normal inner motives but invents its own. While it hopes for interest in the subject itself, and welcomes any interest awakened, it does not rely on awakening interest. It does not go far out of its way to awaken interest. Experience has proved altogether too conclusively that the only motive power on which the academic plan can rely is external compulsion. It employs a very thoroughgoing system of regimentation. The amount of subject material to be mastered is prescribed. Standards of achievement are prescribed. The amount of achievement is periodically measured. Threat of the inconvenience, loss, and humiliation of failure to meet the prescriptions is held over the pupils as penalty. They are told that it is good for them to be driven to what is good for them.

The textbook-taught teacher of French may never have carried on a normal or nonacademic conversation even for one minute with any French-speaking person, and yet her teaching may be entirely acceptable to the au-

thorities. With our excellent foolproof textbooks, with our uncanny foolproof tests, and with our smoothly operating system of regimentation, she can grind the academic machinery without knowing even as much French as the brighter pupils in her class. The conception that her work be a matter of promoting the population's normal speech-functioning in French is so alien to her myopic task that it never occurs either to her or to the authorities.

These two examples illustrate the working of the academic plan in all the wide range of academic subjects, which today constitute the bulk of the curriculum of elementary, secondary, and collegiate levels. It is a system of regimentation designed to fit persons for a life of freedom. It is a short-cut, easy method of giving persons what will make them capable in the discharge of their responsibilities without their having at the time any knowledge of, or concern with, those responsibilities. It is a method of acquiring command over the ways of the world without any contacts with either the world or its ways. It is the method of hearsay, not of doing, in learning to live. In its relation to actual living, it has some resemblance to a correspondence-study course by a desert-dweller designed to fit him for deep-sea diving.

These statements do not refer to those courses in our schools that have already become functional but only to those of the pure academic plan.

THE ACADEMIC CONCEPTION IMBEDDED IN THE MORES

The academic conception is a simple and straightforward one that even the little child can understand. In the beginning of his schooling he learns it with his childish understanding; and through the next ten or fifteen years it dominates his consciousness and activities for five to eight hours each day. It is one matter that he is never permitted to forget. It is so deeply grounded in his immature and uncritical mind that, whether true or false, it becomes to him forever the one and only eternal truth as to what education is and ought to be.

This permanent and irreversible child's conception of education is then the one that he inevitably carries into adulthood and throughout life. Doubts of its validity can almost never be awakened, since he cannot be prevailed upon to examine into the truth of what he knows to be true. It remains a petrified kind of childish thinking from which he cannot escape. As a consequence, the layman rarely achieves an adult or functional conception of how education should be accomplished; and the academic educator, almost never. The evidence for this statement is found in the character of the academic work that is not only sanctioned but compelled by the laymen and is then carried on with complacency by the academic profession at all levels of general education, and even in the teacher-training institutions.

Perhaps, for the sake of accuracy, there should appear with all these statements this qualification: "except in the case of those few aspects of education, such as literacy and vocation, that have always been basically functional."

DEFINITION OF "ACADEMIC"

The term "academic," while seemingly the one best suited for our purposes, may give trouble because of the uncertainties of its connotation. Let us mention a few things that, as here used, the word does not connote. The term does not mean "what goes on in schools," since the functional plan uses schools for essential portions of its work. It does not mean "use of books as sources of information,"

since the functional plan requires an even greater use of books as sources of functioning ideas, as builders of the guiding understanding, and as shapers of attitudes and valuations. The term does not refer to the "intellectual activities as opposed to the practical or manual ones," as, for example, the "related science" in vocational courses as opposed to the shop activities. Actually, in functional education the school should be far more intimately and extensively concerned with intellectual functioning than with any other kind.

The practical educator wants to know which of these two conceptions of the curriculum is the more serviceable. This question will be discussed in the next issue of this journal.

[To be concluded]

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STUDY AND WORK HABITS

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Colgate University

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DURING the past few years the development of good study and work habits has been stressed as an important objective in our schools and colleges. As an outcome of this interest, lists and inventories of "good" study traits have been constructed as guides to the teaching and learning of such habits. Unfortunately many of these lists have been validated against achievement alone as a criterion.¹ As a result, there is no way of knowing whether a given "good" study trait is merely a characteristic of the more intelligent student or one which makes for high achievement relative to ability.

One would never think of setting up an experiment to examine the effect of a given habit of study without equating the experimental and control groups with regard to intelligence. Similarly, one cannot determine the

value of a given study trait merely by ascertaining whether it is characteristic of high-ranking students.

To differentiate between study traits that are functions of intelligence and those which make for achievement irrespective of intelligence, a group of typical study-trait items—most of which have been included in several lists or inventories of good study traits—were included in a questionnaire which was administered to 498 male Freshmen entering Colgate University in the years 1941 and 1942. These items were then examined to discover how well they differentiated between the highest and the lowest fourths of the classes in college marks for the first semester and also between the upper and the lower thirds with respect to the first-semester studiousness index.²

This studiousness index was essentially the residual between scholastic intelligence as measured by the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen and achievement in studies during the first semester. Its effect is to remove from the achievement score

¹ a) Luella Cole and Jessie Mary Ferguson, *Students' Guide to Efficient Study*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1935 (revised).

b) Henry C. Mills, Ruth E. Eckert, and Muriel W. Williams, "Study Habits of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, XLII (December, 1934), 755-61.

c) Luella Cole Pressey, "What Are the Crucial Differences between Good and Poor Students?" *Research Adventures in University Teaching*, pp. 4-10. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1927.

² C. W. Young, "The Residual Index," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVII (November, 1936), 625-30.

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS RANKING IN HIGHEST AND LOWEST FOURTHS IN COLLEGE MARKS AND IN HIGH AND LOW THIRDS ON STUDIOUSNESS INDEX WHO ANSWERED "YES" TO QUESTIONNAIRE ON STUDY TRAITS

QUESTION	ACHIEVEMENT			STUDIOUSNESS		
	Percent- age of High- est Stu- dents	Percent- age of Low- est Stu- dents	Criti- cal Ratio	Percent- age of High Stu- dents	Percent- age of Low Stu- dents	Criti- cal Ratio
Part A: Traits related to achievement but not to studiousness; hence traits related to intelligence						
Positively Related						
1. Do you try to interrupt your reading at a natural break in the printed material, such as at the end of a chapter?.....	90 83	78 75	2.4 2.0	87 78	84 78	0.6 0.0
2. Do you question material as it is being read?.....						
Negatively Related						
3. When you find a word in your reading that you do not know, do you look it up in the dictionary?.....	41	69	4.2	60	59	0.1
4. If a teacher gives an examination without warning, do you usually fail it?.....	7	16	2.8	11	10	0.2
5. Do you usually have trouble in getting the meaning of a table or chart?.....	11	22	2.4	20	20	0.0
6. Do you sit up late at night before an examination studying?.....	37	52	2.2	36	41	0.7
7. Do you usually have trouble expressing yourself through written work?.....	25	38	2.0	30	31	0.2
Part B: Traits related to both achievement and studiousness						
Positively Related						
8. Do you get your lessons thoroughly from day to day to avoid cramming?.....	78	65	2.9	78	62	3.5
9. Do you nearly always start studying immediately at scheduled times?.....	47	33	2.8	52	35	3.4
10. Do you like things that require concentration and persistent effort?.....	68	51	3.5	69	48	4.3
11. When you take up a sort of work or hobby (for example, learning to play a musical instrument), do you keep at it persistently over a considerable period of time?.....	56	39	2.4	52	30	3.2
12. Do you have an unusually strong desire to excel in everything you do?.....	73	62	2.2	77	61	3.5
13. Do you work steadily at a task until it is completed?.....	71	66	1.1	77	60	3.7
14. Would you say that you put forth a great deal of effort toward getting good marks?.....	60	47	2.6	66	36	6.2

TABLE 1—Continued

QUESTION	ACHIEVEMENT			STUDIOUSNESS		
	Percent- age of High- est Stu- dents	Percent- age of Low- est Stu- dents	Criti- cal Ratio	Percent- age of High Stu- dents	Percent- age of Low Stu- dents	Criti- cal Ratio
Part B—Continued						
Negatively Related						
15. Do you frequently daydream when you are studying?.....	53	60	1.0	54	71	2.5
16. Do you often fail to work at times that you planned to work?.....	37	47	1.6	36	58	3.2
17. Do you usually wait until about halfway through a semester before really getting down to work on your courses?.....	11	23	2.3	8	26	3.5
18. Do you sometimes feel quite enthusiastic about your school work and quite suddenly find your mood change to one of indifference and dislike?.....	64	79	3.3	63	78	3.3
19. Do you spend some time getting warmed up before you settle down to study?.....	51	62	2.3	52	58	1.2
Part C: Traits positively related to studiousness but not to achievement; hence traits negatively related to intelligence						
20. Do you study lessons at the first opportunity after they have been assigned?.....	50	51	0.2	54	38	3.2
21. Do you review your work regularly even when there is no review assignment or examination?.....	23	20	0.5	30	12	3.2
22. Do you have a definite time for studying specific lessons?.....	29	25	0.9	35	25	2.2

that part which is a function of ability as measured by the test, and thus it gives a measure of the student's achievement with his ability held equal to that of other students.

Table 1 shows the result of this item analysis. In Part A of this table are items that show practically no difference between the studious and the unstudious but which do correlate with school marks. It appears probable that high scholastic aptitude enables a student to display these superior traits but that the student of low aptitude but serious inten-

tion fails, on the whole, to develop them. Some, such as Items 5 and 7, are obviously self-estimates of aptitude. Others, such as Items 1 and 2, suggest that the interested search for the meaning of what is studied is chiefly a function of an intellectual level capable of appreciating that meaning.

The results on Item 6 cast some doubt on the idea that prolonged study just before examinations is a bad idea. To be sure, those students receiving higher marks do less cramming, but this is apparently due to

the fact that their superior ability makes it unnecessary for them to study for several hours the night before an examination. Item 6 suggests that the less able individual is likely to stay up late to prepare for important examinations in spite of the fact that he has prepared his lessons daily as did his more intelligent and studious brother (Item 8).

The results with respect to the frequently lauded habit of looking words up in the dictionary are interesting (Item 3). This trait shows no relationship at all to achievement when intelligence is partialled out but has the second highest critical ratio of the entire study with respect to unpartialled achievement. The difference, however, lies in the negative direction; those who look words up in the dictionary get lower marks than those who do not. Using the logic and method of many former studies, we should have to conclude that use of the dictionary is harmful to success in school work. Actually we find it to be a fairly harmless habit, characteristic of the less scholastically apt student who probably has difficulty in judging meaning from context.

The items in Parts B and C, with only three exceptions, show critical ratios of greater than 3.0 with respect to the difference between the studious and the unstudious groups. Together these items suggest steady, vigorous, highly motivated effort as the outstanding trait of the student whose achievement is high relative to his

abilities. Whatever the techniques he employs in study, the studious individual is a *good worker*. He gets down to work quickly, he enjoys his work, and he persists until he has achieved his goals.

In Part B both the positively related and the negatively related items are arranged in order of their probable relation to ability, judging by the difference between the critical ratio for studiousness and that for achievement. Examination of the list suggests that the individual who is both studious and able characteristically dispatches his work with promptness and pleasure and with not too great effort. He studies his lessons from day to day without cramming; he gets down to work easily; he likes things that require concentration; he may at times break his schedule and may even allow himself an occasional daydream during study hours. The traits of the less able but studious individual suggest great persistence and almost painful effort with less genuine pleasure in the work.

In Part C are listed three traits which, to judge by their correlation with studiousness, are probably valuable study habits even though they fail to correlate significantly with marks. What they seem to portray is a rather rigid adherence to schedule and procedure rather than a flexible response to necessity and convenience. They suggest the lesser freedom and ease enjoyed by the student who is determined to succeed but who is

handicapped by lack of ability in relation to his equally determined but more talented rivals.

SUGGESTIONS

This investigation suggests that, if one wishes to improve a student's work, it is less important to coach him in techniques of study than to inculcate in him the motives for, and habits of, vigorous, persistent effort. Probably, if such habits are attained, the student will of his own accord learn the techniques that are compatible with his level of ability. If he does develop persistence but does not learn the techniques, he can then be profitably taught the techniques. On

the other hand, emphasis on techniques might even encourage some students in the belief that good results can be achieved without strong effort.

It may be suggested also that, in developing a student into a good worker, one may perhaps be achieving the most important single educational objective. While this study gives no answers as to the method by which such character education may be achieved, a sufficient amount of reliable findings are available through psychological research to give us these methods once the problem is clearly defined as a problem of attitude and character.

AREA STUDY AND GENERAL EDUCATION

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*

THE average American high-school and college graduate knows little about how people live in other parts of the globe. He lacks not only information on foreign areas or regions but also knowledge of methods and principles with which to evaluate the facts about a given area. As far as principles for evaluation exist, they remain the exclusive property of the specialist; the educator in general has not acquired them. Each specialist has been interested in the special phase of his work; there has been little co-ordination between the geographer, the anthropologist, the sociologist, the economist, and the political scientist.

The need for an understanding of foreign areas is becoming more and more evident in America. The movement of the western frontier has come to a close; the isolating effect of the oceans has ceased to operate; a world economy is emerging. The position of America has changed. Turning from a debtor country into a creditor country which produces half the world's manufactured goods, America has become interwoven in the fate of the world. It is bursting with productive capacity, and economists doubt the possibility of full employment and

maintenance of a high scale of living without the exportation of some of this overflow of production. It seems impossible to maintain peace and stability at home without maintaining such conditions abroad. The American citizen, whether he likes it or not, is about to become a world citizen who has to care for the welfare of the world in his own interests. Education will, no doubt, adapt itself to this new condition.

AREA STUDY AS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The demand of the armed forces for persons who know and understand foreign areas will be sustained by other organizations after the war. Private corporations will look for American-trained salesmen, production managers, engineers, doctors, etc. At the same time we may expect the government to enlarge its agencies abroad. The old-time, exclusive diplomatic service will have to be largely replaced by men who are thoroughly trained and who are specialists on conditions abroad.

Whether this type of training has educational value or not is, as far as this demand is concerned, irrelevant. The training in the understanding of

foreign areas will have to be provided, and consequently we may assume that many students will choose those educational institutions which provide such training. The public will also become conscious of the need for secondary schools to provide the basis for such a training.

The argument may be raised: "This is vocational training as we understand it. What is the educational value of such area studies?" Before the educational value of such studies is discussed, let us consider the importance of area studies as vocational training.

The difference between vocational training and general education, important as it is, can be overrated. To my mind it is one of degree rather than one of kind. There is, indeed, a great difference between a student mechanically trained to steer a ship by the stars and a student of astronomy. But there is not so much difference between a student gathering intelligent information about a foreign area and its language and the person who studies the same area for educational purposes, that is, in order to become an intelligent citizen and to train his mind for intelligent action. Regionalism and provincialism are caused, more often than not, by the ignorance of a people concerning conditions abroad and by their inability to understand the relations of their own region to those regions with which theirs is in contact, economically and politically. The information supplied by area study will widen the horizon

of the trainee, help him become a more intelligent citizen, and prepare him for more intelligent action.

For some time the demand for vocational training in foreign areas may be larger than the educational demand. This demand for vocational training in foreign areas has advantages, but it also has certain dangers. Almost anybody can pick up data about a region and communicate them in a more or less interesting fashion to the student. The dangers of eclecticism and of emphasis on trivialities are obvious in both vocational training and general education.

The idea of studying foreign areas is not new. Other countries have used this weapon consciously and effectively, notably France, England, Russia, and Germany. In these countries the work is heavily subsidized by the government. England has an interesting combination of both vocational training and general education; Lawrence of Arabia was a product of this type of education. Germany, as a frustrated imperialistic power, has trained many students. Considering what Germany has to sell ideologically and considering the traditional relations between Germany and France, the Nazis were able to obtain a rather high degree of co-operation from France during this war. This success was the result of efficient area training in Germany. Russia has her area studies in the Lenin School and especially in the Far Eastern University in Moscow. Here she has trained thousands of men in social control of

foreign areas. Tito of Yugoslavia is a graduate of the Lenin School. The leaders of the Northern Army in China are products of the Moscow Far Eastern University. The training given in England, Germany, and Russia has been better than that given in this country, if only for the simple reason that the training period was normally one of several years. The institutions of these countries also have the advantage of receiving high-school students who have reached a certain level in the knowledge of the history and the geography of foreign countries, which are major required subjects in the high schools of all the countries mentioned.

AREA STUDY AS GENERAL EDUCATION

Let us now consider the area study from the viewpoint of general education. The fundamental problem in area studies is the great number of physical and social phenomena. An unsystematic compilation of all these facts is useless, from the point of view of science as well as of education. We want to present these facts in their order of causal and historical connection. In order to have educational value, area studies thus would have to concentrate on these connections or relationships rather than on mere facts. There is an additional difficulty. The usual division of the social sciences is an analytic and a functional one, based on different aspects of the unitary social process. In the area

study, however, we are concerned with the whole social process within a given area. Political science and economics, at least in their classical approach, separate the object of study from its natural and social environment and study it, so to speak, in isolation. Principles are derived in this way and are then taught to students. Even if case studies are used, the students usually obtain only a partial view of society.

It is obvious that in area study the analytical approach has to be supplemented by what we may call the "synthetic approach." If we want to understand an area, we cannot study the sociological, economic, political, and anthropological objects and relationships separately. We have to study all these relationships in interaction in the historically given area and see how they produce the specific character of that area. This method is supplementary to the analytical one. The analytical approach is necessary for reasons of specialization and because of the need for the formulation of laws. The sociologist, in that approach, studies social relationships; the political scientist concentrates on political relationships; the economist, on economic relationships. The sociologist, for instance, tries to find laws of behavior by isolating social relationships as completely as he can, by eliminating factors irrelevant to his purpose, by reducing the relationships to a simple condition. Like the physicist, who in his experiments keeps air

pressure constant by reducing it to zero, the sociologist or political scientist chooses his relationships in such a way as to keep certain conditions constant. Of the factors kept constant, it is, moreover, the physical factor, the physical environment, that is usually kept constant. Thus, for example, the political scientist studies the political relations of man; he studies structures of states as they may appear anywhere. As a political scientist trying to formulate a law of political science, he will take the social factors, such as religion or economics, into consideration only in so far as they express themselves in legal or political institutions. He will especially ignore the physical setting. He is not interested in tracing the causal influences which location, land forms, climate, natural resources, etc., exert on the structure of a state. But states and types of states vary from place to place; each state is a specific case. Furthermore, in area study we want to understand more than the political setup of the area; we want to know the structure and character of that area in its physical and social totality.

It appears that, scientifically, three steps are involved in the study of areas: (1) the gathering and observation of phenomena within the area; (2) an analysis of the area; and (3) a synthetic study of the pertinent social and physical relationships within the area. The analytical and the synthetic approaches complement each other. Area study is impossible without both.

INTEGRATING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

We have in the area study the best argument for the integration of the social sciences. In the area study the student gets a chance to apply what he has learned in theory. Theory becomes alive, and the student can see the principles work.

From this point of view it is of secondary importance which area is selected. Area study does not have to be foreign area study. It is absurd to start with remote areas—for instance, the polar and desert regions—as is done so frequently in elementary schools. An unfortunate characteristic of that type of teaching is that these regions are not studied as a whole but that the Eskimo and the Arab are stressed. On the lower-grade levels the educator would be wise to begin with an area with which the child has had living experience. In the elementary schools, study could start with the home region and go gradually to more and more distant regions. In secondary schools a discussion of North America on a higher level, followed by a study of South America and other foreign regions, might be undertaken. A similar approach could be used at the college level, more intricate problems and methods being introduced. It would be most desirable to have uniform principles of curriculum construction at the various levels.

In this regional approach we can study individual phenomena, practice the analytical approach, and show the student the interrelationships between

location, climate, natural resources, economics, and social and political structures.

The important thing is that we must be able to demonstrate the main factors and relationships at work in a given society. A proper, systematic approach in area study will give the student a picture closer to reality and will prevent teacher and student from clinging to surface features. Furthermore, it is important that, before any discussion of ideological phenomena takes place, the teacher should show the student the fundamental basis of that society. The important basis of any society is its material culture as it expresses itself in location, land forms, climate, natural resources, and social and political organizations. Any discussion of history, ideology, arts, customs, aspirations, etc., should come after a discussion of material culture. The student will understand the difference between France and Germany much better as a difference in ecology. Different location, different land forms, different arrangement of local regions, different natural resources, make for differences in history and culture. An understanding of Chinese culture and civilization is impossible without an understanding of the geographical setting, especially the climate, the physical character of the regions, the importance of rivers and river plains, the importance of rice and bamboo, the density of the population, and the organization of the Chinese people as an adaptation to the specific physical setup. Chinese art,

philosophy, customs, laws, religions, etc., can then be understood in their logical connection with the physical and social setting and not as oddities.

Let me state an example of how not to study other peoples. For several years now we have tried to promote friendship with South America in the secondary schools. It is my impression that we did not get very far, precisely because of the lack of a systematic area study. We have taught the students surface features of these cultures and have been unable to relate these features to one another and to South American material culture. Look over the vast amount of materials issued by various agencies in mimeographed or pamphlet form. South American music, costumes, dressed paper dolls, musical instruments, dances, curious products, are dealt with profusely, with the probable result that South America must look even more odd to our students than it looked before. Essential facts and relationships in South America are constantly being overlooked. The special climate, the different natural resources, the property relationships of land, the role of the large landed estates and landless peasants, the lack of industries and the resulting lack of a middle class, the role of a medieval church based on medieval rural conditions, the lack of democracy, the struggle for democracy—all these features are usually ignored. We could arouse respect and sympathy in our students if South America were discussed in terms of the

struggle of South Americans against an adverse climate, poor natural resources, and feudal European social and political institutions. It is impossible to understand their culture in terms of piano pieces, paper dolls, costumes, dances, wind instruments, and fairy tales. Such teaching is adverse to any educational process. It can do more harm than would complete ignorance about the country.

A study of a region must begin with its location, not in terms of longitude and latitude, but in its relations to seas and continents and other regions. Whether the region lies in isolating mountains or in open plains is important; further, the type of climate, one of the most potent factors in any landscape, must be ascertained. The next step would be a study of the land forms, the arrangement of plains and mountains, the natural resources, agriculture, and industry—an investigation of what is produced in the region and, more important, how it is produced. People organize themselves around their natural resources and means of production.

An effective approach to southern Chinese society and culture would center its attention on bamboo and rice. Rice as a product of monsoon conditions; the rhythm of the monsoon which determines the rhythm of Chinese life, festivals, and customs; the distribution and consumption of rice as factors organizing Chinese life; the hundreds of different uses of bamboo; the influence of bamboo on artistic style and on the design of tools,

utensils, furniture, architecture, etc.; the political organization of China, which is built largely out of the necessity of maintaining production of food for a dense population; the organizing force exercised by the necessity of river control (how good governments mean good conditions of the river dikes, how corrupt governments mean bad dikes and famine); the early attempts of the Chinese to fight corruption and to build an efficient civil service; the reflection of that fight in their religion and philosophy; the pragmatic character of Chinese religion in contrast with the idealistic religion of the West; the features that Chinese feudalism has in common with European; the introduction of European ideas to China and the Chinese reaction; the merging of old Chinese feudal institutions with modern Western liberal ones—all these phenomena are worth studying. It can be maintained, justifiably, that the study of Chinese culture is not nearly so difficult as it has been made out to be in the past.

COMPARING FOREIGN AREAS

The foregoing discussion has been concerned with the integration of social sciences on the basis of area studies, in which the choice of the area is relatively irrelevant. A second aspect is concerned with the study of foreign areas mainly as a comparative study in which the pupil studies a foreign civilization in order to understand better his own. The appreciation of American civilization is difficult with-

out any fair comparison. Too much is taken for granted by the student. How can he know that many peoples are struggling to obtain certain elements of American culture into which he has been born and which therefore seem natural to him? How can he know that certain conditions could be otherwise? He is uncertain where some political decisions might take the country. Free enterprise; centralization; individual rights; developments in art, science, and law—all need bases of comparison to be completely understood. Labor legislation, for instance, contains many elements of Scandinavian, English, and German law.

As our culture is not autochthonous, we are confronted here with two problems: (1) the problem of comparing our cultural achievements with those of others and (2) the problem of understanding our borrowed cultural elements—what produced them in the country from which they were borrowed and what are the limits of their application in this country. The western European countries have had these comparative studies as an integral part of their curriculums. England, France, Germany, and even Russia borrowed heavily from more mature civilizations, such as the Greek and the Roman. The old civilizations especially were considered to be models; the studies of the old civilizations were area studies and frequently were more developed than were the studies of living civilizations. Their weakness was their prevailing

literary character. For a number of obvious reasons, such a type of area study would be useless in American education. Nevertheless, the study of comparative civilizations would be an advantage to American education if we would drop these old civilizations and concentrate on living ones. Here the choice of the area, of course, becomes important. It could be essentially a study in contrast in order to give the student a better understanding of his own society. Motivation, location of the home region, its social character, would play important parts in the choice of the foreign area.

Among numerous possibilities for study, the Soviet Union would be a case in point. It offers insight into the working of a completely different civilization. Because of the lack of a systematic area approach, the prevailing trend now is to make rather superficial comparisons. As in the case of South America, we tend to concentrate on what the American and the Russian civilizations have in common and to underrate the differences. This emphasis provides dangerous ground on which to reach an understanding of Russia. With the appearance of the first difficulties in the relations of America and Russia, the people of this country might find themselves bitterly disillusioned.

The practical realization of area studies in secondary and higher education will not be easy. Not much regional work has been done by Ameri-

can scholars. We have now a fairly sizable literature on North America. In the case of South America and Asia the supply is poor, but there is more material to be had on European countries. In regard to teachers, the situation is even worse. The number of scholars and teachers who can be called experts in human geography, ecology, or area study or who are experts on a given foreign region is pitifully small. In many high schools geography is not taught at all. When it is taught, it is often merely specialized physical geography. In many

cases it is not even that but rather a Sears-Roebuck catalogue of physical features.

In area study, American schools will have to start from scratch. There are certain advantages in that. The instructor teaching area study must be a specially qualified teacher. He must be a trained social scientist with an extensive frame of reference. He must be able to integrate the various social-science disciplines. The complexity of area study demands co-operation, co-ordination, and specialization.

A SURVEY OF TEACHERS ATTENDING SUMMER SCHOOL

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WITH two hundred thousand teachers leaving the profession since Pearl Harbor and with the enrolment in teachers' colleges averaging 60 per cent less than the pre-war level,¹ keeping the schools of the nation staffed is a crucial problem. In many states emergency teachers make up fully one-fifth of the teaching corps. In such a crisis it is plain that the teacher-training institutions should do everything in their power to add to the supply of teachers and to upgrade those already employed. The summer session would appear to be one way of implementing such a program.

One feature of the 1944 summer session at the University of Utah was a three-week workshop in elementary education. The main features of the workshop included observation of children, evaluation of that observation, and general and committee sessions where teachers worked on their own problems. The students enrolled in the workshop numbered 125. Very soon the staff found that many of these students were unusual people. In order to get a more comprehensive picture of the workshop members, a questionnaire was submitted to the

group. In this paper the social and educational status of the members of this elementary-education workshop will be examined.

GENERAL DATA

Of the 117 persons who responded to the questionnaire, 114 were women. Fifty-three of the group were regularly employed teachers, and 64, or approximately 55 per cent, were temporary or emergency teachers. The emergency teachers had been out of the profession for from two to thirty years. The median number of years out of the profession was 14.1.

Ages ranged from twenty to sixty-four years. The median age for the regular teachers was thirty-nine years; for the emergency teachers, forty-six years. The median age for the entire group was forty-three and a half years.

HOME RESPONSIBILITIES

Of the 117 respondents, 35 were single, 67 married, 14 widowed, and 1 divorced. All but 2 of the emergency teachers had been married, whereas 33 of the 53 regular teachers were single. This difference is probably due, in part, to the restrictions imposed by many districts against married women teachers prior to the war.

Seventeen of the regular teachers

¹ "Teacher Recruiting—Morale Building," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIII (May, 1944), 114.

and fifty-five of the emergency teachers were the parents of children. One woman was the mother of ten children; another, of nine; another, of eight; and four of the students had seven children each. Regular teachers with children had a median number of three, while emergency teachers with children had a median number of three and a half. The 72 parents in the group had a total of 236 children.

Fourteen regular and fifty emergency teachers gave the occupational classification of their spouses. Eighteen of the sixty-four spouses were in professional work, one-half of them in teaching. Twenty-three of the total number were in business, and about half of these were farm owners and managers. Nine of the spouses were skilled laborers, six semi-skilled, and four were in military service.

Many of the emergency teachers attended the summer session at considerable personal inconvenience. Six of the regular and thirty-three of the emergency teachers had to arrange for someone to care for their children while they attended the workshop session. In eleven instances older children were made responsible for the family. In nine cases the mothers of workshop members took over the home responsibilities. Married children, other relatives, and friends also helped out in this way. In three cases the emergency teachers brought their children with them, and these children became part of the enrolment of children in the observation school.

The home responsibilities of the

workshop members were reflected again in the fact that eleven regular and twenty-six emergency teachers commuted to and from the University. Three of these people traveled as much as ninety miles a day.

EDUCATION AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Table 1 shows the number of years of college work completed by work-

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED
BY REGULAR AND EMERGENCY TEACHERS
ENROLLED IN WORKSHOP

Number of Years	Regular Teachers	Emer- gency Teachers	Total
None.....		2	2
One.....		7	7
Two.....	11	32	43
Three.....	9	10	19
Four.....	27	11	38
Five.....	2		2
Not given.....	4	2	6
Total.....	53	64	117

shop members. Regular teachers were predominantly college graduates, while most of the emergency teachers had completed the two-year normal-school course common at the time that they received their professional education. Ninety-two per cent of the group had done their college work in the state, two-thirds of them at the University of Utah.

In Table 2 the date of the last previous college work done by the workshop members may be seen. Thirty-eight of the regular teachers had earned college credit since 1940. In the case of the emergency teachers,

twenty-eight reported college work done since 1940, but in twenty-three of those cases the work represented was a brief summer session in 1943 or an extension class during the previous

TABLE 2

DATE OF LAST COLLEGE WORK DONE BY
REGULAR AND EMERGENCY TEACH-
ERS ENROLLED IN WORKSHOP

Year	Regular Teachers	Emergency Teachers	Total
1940-44.....	38	28*	66
1935-39.....	7	5	12
1930-34.....	2	7	9
1925-29.....	2	9	11
1920-24.....	1	7	8
1915-19.....		4	4
1910-14.....	1	2	3
Not given.....	2	2	4
Total.....	53	64	117

* Twenty-three of this number had been in the 1943 summer session or had taken an extension class in the previous year.

year. In many instances the date of the last college work done by this group before 1943 was ten to thirty years earlier.

With regard to teaching experience, Table 3 shows that regular teachers had a median teaching experience of 14.4 years, while the corresponding figure for emergency teachers was 7.6 years. While emergency teachers had little more than half the teaching experience of regular teachers, their experience with marriage, the rearing of children, and the general problems of life may often have more than compensated for their lack of teaching experience by giving them a background upon which to build.

Workshop members gave various reasons for coming to the workshop.

Approximately 70 per cent of the members said that they had come to learn about recent trends in teaching. Eleven people were frank in saying that they had come for the purpose of earning credit toward graduation or the renewal of a teaching certificate. Nine students indicated that they had come specifically to see a modern school in action.

SALARIES

Of the fifty-three regular teachers, forty-eight held regular contracts; three were employed on a substitute basis; and two were not yet employed. Forty of the emergency teachers held regular contracts; twelve were em-

TABLE 3

TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF REGULAR AND
EMERGENCY TEACHERS ENROLLED
IN WORKSHOP

Number of Years	Regular Teachers	Emergency Teachers	Total
33-35.....	2		2
30-32.....			
27-29.....	2	1	3
24-26.....	6	1	7
21-23.....	4	1	5
18-20.....	6	5	11
15-17.....	4	5	9
12-14.....	9	2	11
9-11.....	7	10	17
6-8.....	4	14	18
3-5.....	2	18	20
0-2.....	6	7	13
Not given.....	1		1
Total.....	53	64	117
Median.....	14.4	7.6	11.7

ployed on a substitute basis; four had been told that they would be employed if needed; six had no contract and seemed uncertain of their status; and one was not yet employed.

In Table 4 the salaries that workshop members expected to receive in

TABLE 4
SALARIES FOR 1944-45 OF REGULAR AND
EMERGENCY TEACHERS ENROLLED
IN WORKSHOP

Annual Salary in Dollars	Regular Teachers	Emer- gency Teachers	Total
2,400 and above..	1	1
2,300-2,399.....	4	4
2,200-2,299.....	3	2	5
2,100-2,199.....	7	1	8
2,000-2,099.....	6	1	7
1,900-1,999.....	5	1	6
1,800-1,899.....	3	1	4
1,700-1,799.....	1	4	5
1,600-1,699.....	5	4	9
1,500-1,599.....	3	6	9
1,400-1,499.....	2	5	7
1,300-1,399.....	2	7	9
1,200-1,299.....	1	8	9
1,100-1,199.....	1	5	6
1,099 and below..	1	4	5
Not given.....	8	15	23
Total.....	53	64	117
Range.....	\$950-	\$900-	\$900-
	\$3,190	\$2,200	\$3,190
Median.....	\$1,970	\$1,410	\$1,622

1944-45 are shown: Forty-five of the regular teachers reported salaries ranging from \$950 to \$3,190. The

median salary expected was \$1,970. Forty-nine emergency teachers reported salaries ranging from \$900 to \$2,200, with a median of \$1,410.

Even with salaries based on the factors of training and experience, it is doubtful that the differential between the salaries of regular teachers and those of emergency teachers should be as great as it is. Some school districts still seem to be practicing salary discrimination against emergency teachers.

The workshop members were an earnest, hard-working group. Even though many of them were emergency teachers with little formal training and little experience and with absences from the profession of many years, they had a readiness for the program that was at times amazing. The workshop proved to be a vehicle by which regular and emergency teachers grew in strength and in confidence for the big task before them.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

*

THE same grouping of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as was used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-44, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

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40. ANDERSON, G. LESTER, and OTHERS. *Adapting the High School to Wartime and Postwar Needs*. Modern School Curriculum Series, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1943. Pp. 54.

Describes the relationship of specific units in English and social studies developed in the University of Minnesota High School to the practice of skills, the development of morale, and the understanding of the issues of the war and the postwar period.

¹ See also Item 163 (Hyatt) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, Item 244 (Backus) in the May, 1944, number, and Item 389 (Gray) in the October, 1944, number of the same journal.

41. BALLARD, P. B. "Teaching of English; Some Comments on the Norwood Report," *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 1480 (September 11, 1943), p. 437.

Criticizes the Norwood Report (Item 48 in this list) and points out that, although changing personnel has made standards of English-teaching reprehensibly low, English is better taught today in Great Britain than it ever was.

42. BERRY, LOLA. *Radio Development in a Small City School System*. Hattie and Luther Nelson Memorial Library, Vol. IX. Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1943. Pp. 126.

Describes the extensive radio workshop activities of the high school in Lewiston, Idaho.

43. BODMER, FREDERICK, *The Loom of Language*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1944. Pp. x+692.

Presents in popular form an illuminating comparison of the psychological problems of learning English grammar with the problems of learning the grammars of other languages.

44. CARROTHERS, G. E. "Reading in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (January, 1944), 83-88.

Discusses concretely the problems of teaching reading in high school and gives suggestions for improvement.

45. CERTNER, SIMON. "Teaching Vocational Students To Write and Speak," *Eng-*

- lish Journal*, XXXII (December, 1943), 539-47.
Offers concrete examples of a well-motivated, humanized course in English for vocational students.
46. CERTNER, SIMON. "Modern Life and Literature in the Vocational Curricula," *English Journal*, XXXIII (March, 1944), 135-43.
Protests against a narrow vocational emphasis in English courses for vocational-school pupils and outlines clearly ideals to be shared through literature.
47. CHANCELLOR, PAUL G. "What Songs Has America?" *English Journal*, XXXIII (February, 1944), 81-88.
Offers specific suggestions for acquainting pupils with American folklore.
48. COMMITTEE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL, 1941. *Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools*. London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1943. Pp. x+152.
This document, popularly known as the Norwood Report, deplores the paucity of results in secondary-school English-teaching in Great Britain and recommends less specialized training in English for English teachers and broader training in those things about which people commonly speak, write, and read.
49. DAY, MARGARET E. "How Well Do High-School Graduates Write?" *English Journal*, XXXII (November, 1943), 493-99.
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50. FLESCHE, RUDOLF. *Marks of a Readable Style*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 897. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. 70.
Explains the derivation of a formula for prediction of difficulty of adult reading material.
51. GILKINSON, HOWARD. "Experimental and Statistical Research in General Speech: I. Effects of Training and Correlates of Speech Skill," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXX (February, 1944), 95-101.
Summarizes recent research on the effects of speech training and correlates of speech skill.
52. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "Vocabulary and Intelligence," *Etc.*, I (Winter, 1943-44), 92-98.
Protests against learning words in vocabulary lists out of context and urges the necessity of building an experiential base for word knowledge.
53. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "Creative English and the War," *English Journal*, XXXIII (January, 1944), 29-35.
Makes a plea for vigorous use of war issues and experiences in the English class.
54. HENRY, GEORGE H. "Toward the Teaching of Ideals," *English Journal*, XXXIII (February, 1944), 63-72.
Attacks vigorously English-teaching which makes literature sentimentally pretty and, in reconstructing past ages, ignores the relationship of literature to life today.
55. JOHNSON, WENDELL. "You Can't Write Writing," *Etc.*, I (August, 1943), 25-32.
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56. KELLEY, CORNELIA P., and ROBERTS, CHARLES W. "Rhetoric Proficiency Tests at the University of Illinois," *Illinois English Bulletin*, XXXI (March, 1944), 1-24.
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57. KOPEL, DAVID. "Reading Textbooks and the Reading Program," *English Journal*, XXXII (October, 1943), 420-28.
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58. LEE, MAURICE A. "Improving the Reading of the Negro Rural Teachers in the South," *Journal of Negro Education*, XIII (Winter, 1944), 47-56.
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59. LEVINROW, GEORGE E., and BERG, ESTHER L. (editors). "The Use of Motion Pictures To Develop Better Human Relations," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (February, 1944), 39-44.
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60. LORGE, IRVING. "Predicting Readability," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (March, 1944), 404-19.
Reviews formulas for prediction of readability and suggests a combined method involving a semantic count.
61. LOWDERMILK, R. R. "Teaching with Transcriptions," *Association for Education by Radio Journal*, III (January, 1944), 1, 9.
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62. MACCONNELL, CHARLES M., MELBY, ERNEST O., and ARNDT, CHRISTIAN O. *New Schools for a New Culture*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. xii+230.
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63. ORD, J. "Elimination of Errors through Self-criticism: English Composition," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXII (September, 1943), 36-40.
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64. POLEY, IRVIN C. "A Third Aim," *English Journal*, XXXII (September, 1943), 374-79.
Suggests thirteen ways for developing social and emotional maturity through English-teaching.
65. "Pre-induction Needs in Language Communication and Reading," *Education for Victory*, II (December 1, 1943), 1, 16-24.
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66. RACHFORD, HELEN. "Los Angeles County Schools Report New and Renewed Emphases in Radio Activities," *Association for Education by Radio Journal*, III (February, 1944), 4, 9.
Gives a specific list of suggestions for improved use of the radio in the classroom.
67. ROTHENBERG, JULIUS G. "English Errors of Slow Learners," *English Journal*, XXXII (December, 1943), 551-56.
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68. SCRAFFORD, RALPH. "United We Stand," *English Journal*, XXXIII (May, 1944), 247-52.
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69. SEATTLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Guidebook for the Language Arts: Manual of Standards*

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70. SEIDENFELD, MORTON A., and WITTY, PAUL A. "Adult Elementary Education in the Army of the United States," *Adult Education Bulletin*, VIII (October, 1943), 4-7.
- Outlines as significant factors in the army reading program (1) materials loaded with motive and sustained interest, (2) a functional approach to reading, and (3) use of visual aids to extend experience.
71. SHULAR, HELEN. "Procedures Employed in Developing Certain Social Concepts through the Use of High School English Materials," *Southern Association Quarterly*, VII (November, 1943), 478-85.
- Describes in detail a course on American ideals worked out co-operatively by an English and a social-studies teacher in the third year of the Waynesboro (Virginia) High School.
72. SLATKIN, CHARLES E. "Dying for Alice," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (January, 1944), 5-14.
- Protests strenuously against retention of "dead" classics and materials for literary escape and urges re-examination of old and new materials significant "in the light of vast developments" in recent centuries.
73. SPAFFORD, IVOL, and OTHERS. *Building a Curriculum for General Education*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1943. Pp. xvi + 354.
- Pages 281-317 describe the program of writing, speech, and reading considered basic to general education in the General College of the University of Minnesota.
74. STRANG, RUTH M. "How Students Attack Unfamiliar Words," *English Journal*, XXXIII (February, 1944), 88-93.
- Reports methods used by pupils in their attack on new words.
75. WHITE, H. ADELBERT. "Clear Thinking for Army Trainees," *College English*, V (May, 1944), 444-46.
- Offers clear, practical advice on effective handling of discussion.
76. WHITE, VERNA, and ENOCHS, J. B. "Testing the Reading and Interpretation of Literature," *English Journal*, XXXIII (April, 1944), 171-77.
- Offers a carefully prepared statement of literary objectives worked out for the Armed Forces Institute by a committee of experts with suggested techniques of measuring students' effectiveness in their use.
77. WILKINSON, TRASK H. "A Classroom Experiment in Learning from the Modern Novel," *English Leaflet*, XLII (November, 1943), 113-17.
- Describes the use of the modern novel to stimulate among able Juniors and Seniors critical thinking about current problems.
78. ZAHNER, LOUIS C. "Basic English and Language Study," *Education*, LXIV (January, 1944), 319-25.
- Describes the purposes of language-teaching and examines the value of Basic English in understanding the function of language and in improving communication of meanings.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES*

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Regular features or departments such as "Sight and Sound in Social

* See also Item 278 (Kefauver) in the list of selected references appearing in the June, 1944 number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Studies" have not been included in this list.

79. ABRAHAM, HERBERT J. "Testing the Effectiveness of High School Courses in American History," *Social Education*, VIII (May, 1944), 216-19.

States the results of a significant testing program and their implications for improving the teaching of the social studies. Should be read by all social-studies teachers.

80. ANGLE, PAUL M. "Regional and Local History in the Teaching of American History," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXXI (September, 1944), 267-73.

Analyzes the nature and the value of local history and suggests means for getting it taught in secondary schools.

81. ARTLEY, A. STERL. "A Study of Certain Relationships Existing between General Reading Comprehension and Reading Comprehension in a Specific Subject-Matter Area," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 464-73.

Implications for social-studies teachers include the following: need for functional development of specialized vocabulary, close correlation between general reading ability and reading in the social-studies area, and responsibility of all classroom teachers for developing reading skills.

82. BARD, HARRY, and CARR, WILLIAM G. "Education—The Neglected Area in International Co-operation," *Social Education*, VIII (May, 1944), 201-4.

Discusses the historical background and suggests a secondary-school unit on international co-operation in education.

83. BARNETT, SIDNEY, and WEITZ, LEO. "Social Studies Curricula for the Post-war World," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (June, 1944), 34-40.

Outlines the content of world- and American-history courses as discussed at a meeting of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

84. BOLTON, EURI BELLE, and ENGLISH, MILDRED. "Attitudes of High-School Seniors about the War and the Peace," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (April, 1944), 66-76.

The study shows more optimism about domestic economic problems than about international political problems. Seems to reflect the influence of some systematic study of such problems.

85. BRICKMAN, BENJAMIN. "The Relation between Indoctrination and the Teaching of Democracy," *Social Studies*, XXXV (October, 1944), 248-52.

A thoughtful analysis of the problem, indicating types of procedures adapted to treatment of value-preferences on several educational levels.

86. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "The Consumer Education Study," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVIII (November, 1944), 87-93.

Reports on the preparation of about twenty pupil units on phases of consumer education.

87. BRIMBLE, L. J. F., and MAY, FREDERICK J. *Social Studies and World Citizenship*. London: Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1943. Pp. xii+158.

Suggests how "social studies which are a new angle of approach to the accepted subjects of the curriculum" could be used in British schools to educate for world citizenship.

88. BROWN, LOUISE FARGO. *Apostle of Democracy: The Life of Lucy Maynard Salmon*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. 316.

Life of a pioneer in the vital teaching of history. Satisfactory on her college work

- and life, but gives inadequate attention to her work on the Committee of Seven.
89. BURDETTE, FRANKLIN L. "Integration of the Social Studies," *Educational Forum*, VIII (March, 1944), 339-47.
Summarizes an important round table on the problems and methods of integration at the high-school and junior-college levels.
 90. CHATTO, CLARENCE I. "Education for Democratic Living," *Journal of Education*, CXXVII (September, 1944), 189-91.
Springfield, Massachusetts, educates for citizenship through experience in democratic living, by study of specific units of work in the classroom, and by close relations between the school and other community agencies.
 91. CHAUNCEY, HENRY. "The Social Studies Test of the College Entrance Examination Board," *Social Education*, VIII (October, 1944), 253-57.
Concludes that the present one-hour social-studies test of the College Entrance Examination Board is reasonably satisfactory as a measure of achievement in the social studies and has high value for predicting success in introductory courses in history, government, and economics.
 92. COOKE, PAUL. "Social Education and the Teaching of Reading," *Social Education*, VIII (May, 1944), 210-12.
Analyzes reading and suggests ways of developing appropriate reading skills in high-school classes in social studies.
 93. CRITTENDEN, CHRISTOPHER. "History as a Living Force," *Social Studies*, XXXV (January, 1944), 3-8.
Suggests that historians use radio, museums, a popular history magazine, etc., to disseminate historical knowledge and that they pay more attention to relationships between present problems and the past, to local history, and to style.
 94. DALTHORP, CHARLES J. "The Society of American Patriots," *Journal of Education*, CXXVII (April, 1944), 124-26, 142.
Describes a student study society which has seven grades of membership, each of which is achieved by meeting certain standards of performance involving knowledge of United States history.
 95. DOUDNA, EDGAR G. "Preserving the American Heritage," *Wartime Conferences on Education*, pp. 200-207. Official Report of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1944.
Penetrating suggestions for high-school teachers who wish to make the American past "come alive" for their pupils.
 96. *Education for Work and for Citizenship*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XIV, No. 4. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1944. Pp. 285-364.
Chapters vi and vii review the research literature for October, 1941, to October, 1944, for the social studies and for other trends in social education.
 97. EDWARDS, NEWTON. "The Place of United States History in General Education," *Social Education*, VII (December, 1943), 347-51.
States the case for the functional character of the type of history "which deals with a whole integrated society in successive cultural periods." Should be read carefully by all curriculum-makers in the social studies.
 98. ELLWOOD, ROBERT S. (chairman). "Report of the Curriculum Committee," *Councilor*, V (January, 1944), 20-23. Normal, Illinois: Illinois Council for the Social Studies (c/o Robert S. Ellwood, Illinois State Normal University).
Educational principles basic to the proposed curriculum guide furnish a good start for progressive curriculum-making in the social studies.

99. FEINGOLD, GUSTAVE A. "Newspaper Tastes of High-School Pupils," *School and Society*, LIX (April 29, 1944), 316-19.

Indicates how high-school students use the fifteen to thirty minutes they spend daily in reading newspapers.

100. FIELSTRA, CLARENCE. "Important Political Documents in Social Studies for Secondary Schools," *Social Education*, VIII (February, 1944), 76-78.

Reports a research study of documents mentioned in social-studies textbooks and in periodicals and considered important by subject-matter specialists. The author's recommendations for the use of such documents in high school deserve serious consideration.

101. FRIEDMAN, KOPPLE C. "Time Concepts of Junior and Senior High School Pupils and of Adults," *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 233-38.

Research study reinforces the conclusion of experience that, if pupils are to develop an adequate sense of time in history, they must be taught to understand the concepts involved.

102. HAMILTON, MILTON W. "Visual Aids from the Historical Society," *Social Studies*, XXXV (November, 1944), 313-15.

A historical society shows how to make local history function in the schools of Berks County, Pennsylvania.

103. HANNA, LAVONNE AGNES. "The Problem Solving Approach in Social Education: A Study of Its Value in Comparison with Chronological and Topical Approaches." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Stanford University, 1943. Pp. 452. (Reviewed by William A. Smith in *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX [April, 1944], 208-10.)

Recommends the more extensive use of the problem approach, though by no means to the exclusion of other approaches.

104. HUNT, ERLING M. (editor). *Citizens for a New World*. Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. viii+186.

Centers on problems of international relations in the postwar period. The article by Hilda M. Watters has useful suggestions for teaching some of these problems in the secondary school.

105. HUNT, ERLING M., and FINE, BENJAMIN. "Do We Teach Enough American History?" *Progressive Education*, XXI (March, 1944), 124-27, 148-49.

Hunt states the affirmative and Fine the negative side of this issue.

106. JOHNSON, RICHARD A. "Teaching of American History in Great Britain," *American Historical Review*, L (October, 1944), 73-81.

Reviews the present status of American history in British universities and secondary schools.

107. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Unique Origin of a Textbook," *School Review*, LII (February, 1944), 80-83.

Suggests that the preparation by New York legislators of a textbook on the history of American industrial relations points to a solution of the problem of using materials on controversial problems in the schools.

108. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "The New York Times Test in United States History," *Councilor*, V (January, 1944), 6-11. Normal, Illinois: Illinois Council for the Social Studies (% Robert S. Ellwood, Illinois State Normal University).

Reviews the major issues in the recent controversy about the teaching of United States history and suggests remedies for actual shortcomings.

109. KING, ALLEN Y. "Pre-induction Training in the Social Studies," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (December, 1943), 154-60.

Describes the Cleveland program for adapting social-studies courses to wartime conditions.

110. KNOWLTON, DANIEL C. (editor). "History Number," *Education*, LXIV (April, 1944).

Introduced by the editor with a historical résumé of history in American schools, this number contains the following articles: "American History in Schools and Colleges" by Ralph W. Cordier, "Teaching History in the Postwar World" by Constance Warren, "World History in Postwar Education" by Burr W. Phillips, "Why Teach Latin-American History?" by W. Harry Snyder, "Biography and History" by Samuel Steinberg, "Making History Live" by E. Leigh Mudge, "Influence of Testing on History Teaching" by Hilda Taba, "Will History Teachers Prove Effective in the Present Emergency?" by R. H. McFeely, "Teaching of Ancient History in the USSR in Wartime" by Vsevolod Avdiev, "Correlation between Geography and History in an Army Air Force College Training Program" by William G. Ruppert.

111. KYRK, HAZEL. "Consumer Education for Nonspecialized Students: Its Relation to Economic Education," *School Review*, LII (November, 1944), 543-51.

A penetrating analysis of the issues involved in consumer education and economic education and their interrelationships.

112. *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials*. Report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

Reports a survey of materials on Latin America used by United States schools and colleges, criticizes them, and makes specific recommendations for their improvement.

113. LEVI, ALBERT WILLIAM. "Social Science and the Postwar World," *Educational Forum*, VIII (November, 1943), 37-42.

Discusses the role of the social studies in general education, the limitations of the teaching and learning process as revealed by studies of students' beliefs, and the need for co-operative orientation of social scientists about problems of postwar reconstruction.

114. LEVI, ALBERT WILLIAM. "Social Beliefs of College Students," *Journal of Higher Education*, XV (March, 1944), 127-34.

This study shows considerable inconsistency in students' social beliefs and has significant implications for secondary-school social-studies teaching.

115. MCCAUL, ROBERT L. "The Effect of Attitudes upon Reading Interpretation," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 451-57.

Reports an important experiment showing the influence of students' attitudes on their interpretation of what they read.

116. MCFEELY, RICHARD H., MOHR, WALTER F., SMEDLEY, KATHERINE, and SMITH, ELBRIDGE M. "A Co-operative Community Survey," *Social Education*, VII (December, 1943), 355-57.

Reports a co-operative survey of an old New York town by private- and public-school classes.

117. MCGLYNN, EDNA M. "Field Trips in Government Courses," *Social Education*, VIII (January, 1944), 19-22.

Describes field work in a teachers' college course in government and gives suggestions for adaptation to secondary-school conditions.

118. MAINWARING, J. "The Combination of History and Geography in Senior Schools and the Middle Forms of Secondary Schools," *History*, XXIX, New Series (March, 1944), 58-67.

Favors the combination of history and geography and cites examples of its success in British schools.

119. *Make Youth Discussion Conscious! A Handbook for School Forums and Class*

- Discussions with Suggestions for Adapting Radio Forum Techniques to Discussions by Youth. Columbus, Ohio: Junior Town Meeting League, 1944. Pp. 24.
Crammed with practical techniques for conducting youth discussion.
120. MARCH, LELAND S. "Homespun Tools of Learning," *School Executive*, LXIII (July, 1944), 18-23; (August, 1944), 28, 64, 66.
Explains in detail how to equip social-studies classrooms with effective visual aids other than motion pictures.
121. MENDENHALL, THOMAS C. "The Introductory College Course in Civilization," *American Historical Review*, XLIX (July, 1944), 681-84.
Suggestions for giving depth to this course have relevance to the problems of the one-year world-history course in high schools as well as to corresponding courses at the junior-college level.
122. MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. *History in the High School and Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, Vol. XLI. Philadelphia: Middle States Council for the Social Studies (Morris Wolf, editor, % Girard College), 1944. Pp. vi+154.
Reports on agreements and disagreements on United States and world history in the high school. (See also *Social Studies* for October, 1943, and for February, March, May, and October, 1944.)
123. NICHOLS, JEANNETTE P. "Course Revisions Proposed by the Middle States Council for the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, XXXV (February, 1944), 81-84.
States the leading problems in the revision of high-school courses in world and United States history and in elementary social studies. (See also the author's "follow-up" articles in the May and October, 1944, issues.)
124. QUILLEN, I. JAMES. "Education for World Citizenship," *International Frontiers in Education*, pp. 122-27. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CCXXXV. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1944.
Discusses the aims, techniques, and problems of education for world citizenship and the preparation of teachers and of materials. Other articles in the same volume will be of interest to teachers of the social studies.
125. REX, MILLICENT B. "The Long Paper in History," *Social Education*, VIII (March, 1944), 113-15.
Filled with practical suggestions for teachers who want to help pupils realize maximum values from the writing of term papers.
126. RONDILEAU, ADRIAN. *Education for Installment Buying*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 902. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. iv+70.
Reports a study of instalment-buying habits and educational recommendations implied by the findings. Recommends treatment of this area with other consumer-education subjects.
127. ROSS, CARMON. "The Impact of War on the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, XXXV (March, 1944), 116-20.
Summarizes the report of a committee on social studies of the Drexel Institute Conference in 1943. The recommendations deserve serious consideration by administrators and social-studies teachers.
128. SCHUTTE, T. H. "Misinterpretation in Training for Citizenship and Democracy," *Educational Forum*, VIII (November, 1943), 97-104.
Criticizes aspects of "student government" and "socialized recitation" in theory and in practice.
129. SHERWOOD, HENRY NOBLE. "The Value of Historical Study," *School and Society*, LIX (February 26, 1944), 145-47.

Reiterates some fundamental, yet often overlooked, values of history.

130. *The Social Studies Look beyond the War. A Statement of Postwar Policy Prepared by an Advisory Commission of the National Council for the Social Studies.* Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. 40.

Gives specific suggestions for adaptations in, and additions to, current courses and methods in social education. Should be read by every teacher of the social studies.

131. "The Social Studies Program," *School Executive*, LXIII (April, 1944), 49-61. A general discussion of the place of the social studies, followed by descriptions of the programs in several cities.

132. STRANG, RUTH. "Investigators May Fail, Too," *Harvard Educational Review*, XIV (January, 1944), 5-11.

Indicates some of the major inadequacies in the nature, use, and interpretation of the Fraser-Nevins test in American history.

133. TURNER, LAWRENCE E., and SIEMENS, CORNELIUS H. "The Election—a Plan for Citizenship Education," *Social Education*, VIII (October, 1944), 258-61.

Sets forth a detailed scheme for making a national election a valuable educational experience for high-school students.

134. WEIDNER, EDWARD D. "Boy Legislature Plan Spreading," *National Municipal Review*, XXXIII (June, 1944), 283-86, 294.

Describes an aspect of education for citizenship sponsored by the Y.M.C.A.

135. WESLEY, EDGAR B. (director). *American History in Schools and Colleges.* The Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. xiv+148.

Outstanding book of the year in this field. Reports on Americans' knowledge of their history; suggests specific content for elementary- and secondary-school courses; and comments on aims, methods, relations to other social studies, American history in colleges, etc.

136. *Youth Learns To Assume Responsibility.* Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan, No. 3. Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, State Board of Education, 1944. Pp. 108.

Describes specific techniques used by more than fifty teachers in developing civic and personal responsibility of a positive and constructive character.

SCIENCE

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137. ALTWERGER, SAMUEL I. "Related Technical Information: Mathematics and Science in the Vocational School," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (January, 1944), 57-59.

Criticizes the confining of the teaching of science and mathematics in a vocational school to subjects incidental to vocational-shop courses. Maintains that a broader knowledge of science and mathematics will produce better tradesmen and better citizens.

138. BOSWORTH, MILLARD W. "Some Proposals for a United Science Front," *Journal of Chemical Education*, XX (November, 1943), 562-63.

Analyzes the broad problems with which science teachers are confronted in the wartime emergency and offers suggestions for a remedy of present problems and for post-war education in science.

139. BROWN, H. EMMETT. "Mathematics and Physics," *Science Education*, XXVII (November, 1943), 88-94.
Illustrates the reciprocal relationship between mathematics and physics and urges a closer working relationship between the two fields.
140. BURNETT, R. WILL. "Conservation: Focus or Incident in Science Education?" *Science Education*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 82-87.
A defense of the problem approach to science-teaching as opposed to the "field-covering" or generalizations approaches, with specific illustrations from a unit on soil conservation.
141. COOPERATIVE COMMITTEE ON SCIENCE TEACHING. "Science and Mathematics in Educational Programs for Returning Service Men and Women," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (June, 1944), 517-20.
The committee's recommendations for mathematics and physics, chemistry, and biology courses for ex-service people.
142. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "Testing as a Means of Improving Instruction," *Science Education*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 29-31.
Describes a technique whereby teachers may use short-answer tests to improve instruction without spending an excessive amount of time in grading papers.
143. EVEROTE, WARREN PETER. *Agricultural Science To Serve Youth*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 901. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. vi+80.
An experimental study of the effects of organizing science courses around major problem areas.
144. FRANK, O. D., and MAYFIELD, JOHN C. "Orientation in Conservation," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (January, 1944), 1-5.
An outline discussion of the ultimate goal of conservation, the more immediate goals of conservation-teaching, and a plan for conservation education.
145. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "The Unity of Science in Education," *Scientific Monthly*, LIX (July, 1944), 16-20.
Holds that science-teaching, to be most effective, must be "impure" or applied, practical and significant, and that science must break down the departmental barriers.
146. GRAMET, CHARLES A. "Vicarious Visits," *Science Education*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 46-47.
Proposes the use of motion pictures as a substitute for excursions to industrial plants and laboratories and claims that instruction from motion pictures is more effective than that from the actual excursion.
147. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. "Look Ahead in High School Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (February, 1944), 116-21.
Urges the relation of postwar science-teaching to topics of general public interest—health, housing, employment, conservation, and peace—if present high enrolments are not to show a reaction against wartime science-teaching.
148. HERED, WILLIAM, and THELEN, HERBERT A. "The High-School Chemistry Test of the Armed Forces Institute," *Journal of Chemical Education*, XXI (October, 1944), 507-15.
Describes the preparation of a test designed to assist in the evaluation of the chemical education obtained by members of the armed forces. Includes results of preliminary tryouts and some implications for instruction.
149. HOLLINGER, JOHN A.; AMON, J. CLYDE; HOOPES, EDGAR M.; and MANWILLER, CHARLES E. "Physical Science in Senior High Schools," *Science Education*, XXVIII (April, 1944), 130-35.

Description of a general physical-science course developed by Pittsburgh teachers, with an outline of content, suggested activities, and a detailed report of one area of study.

150. HOWARD, BAILEY W. "Science as an Art," *School Executive*, LXIII (November, 1943), 33-34.

Description of the science-survey course for students in Grade XI at Pasadena Junior College. Indicates considerable emphasis on the social implications of applied science and on the scientific method of thought.

151. OSBORN, GERALD. "The Postwar Teachers College Program for the Training of Science Teachers," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (December, 1943), 817-23.

An evaluation of the programs for training science teachers used in thirteen middle western teachers' colleges with respect to adequately trained faculty, adequate facilities, careful selection of candidates, and organization of curriculum, with specific recommendations for the postwar teacher-training program.

152. PORTER, W. A. "Proposed Science Sequence," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (June, 1944), 554-59.

An examination of the fundamental aspects of the science curriculum problem and suggestions for the revision of science content in the secondary school.

153. SCHMIDT, VICTOR E. "Earth Science Demonstrations in a Glass-sided Trough," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (January, 1944), 6-11.

Specifications for the trough and descriptions of demonstrations which can be performed with the apparatus are given.

154. SEVERN, DAVID J. "Science Survey," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIII (December, 1943), 856-59.

Criticizes the usual division of the science surveys into the physical sciences and the

biological sciences, and suggests as an alternative a division into the historical aspect and the dynamic aspect of science.

155. STONE, CHARLES H. "Chemical Investigations for High-School and Junior College Students," *Journal of Chemical Education*, XX (December, 1943), 610, 617.

A list of simple experiments suitable for the beginning high-school chemistry student, designed to challenge the student and to lead him to important generalizations.

156. SUTTON, T. C. "Teacher Failure in Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (June, 1944), 549-53.

Summarizes opinions of administrators and of experienced science teachers on reasons for failure of science teachers and suggests further research.

157. "Symposium: How Can Science Education Make Its Greatest Contribution in the Postwar Period?" *Science Education*, XXVIII (October, 1944), 231-38.

Nine authorities in the field of science and science-teaching discuss objectives, content, and teacher preparation in the postwar science program.

158. *Teachers College Record*, XLV (January, 1944), Special science number.

Contains articles entitled "The Social Role of Science," "Toward Unified Learning," "The Science Teacher and the Changing Functions of Secondary Education," "The Science Teacher and His Objectives," "The Teacher of Science and His Community," "Teaching Science and the Individual," "The Modern Role of Biology Teaching," and "The Modern Role of Physical Science Teaching."

159. WALLI, O. E. "Adapting Industrial Courses to Community Needs," *School (Secondary Edition)*, XXXII (April, 1944), 715-17.

Tells how the science and industrial courses in the Timmins (Ontario) High and Vocational School were organized to meet the requirements of the local mining industries.

160. WILLIAMS, LOU. *A Dipper Full of Stars*. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1944. Pp. 170.

An introductory study of astronomy for the junior high school. Amply illustrated.

161. WRIGHT, WILLIAM ALBERT EARL. "Needed Re-evaluation of Certification Requirements for Biology Teachers," *Science Education*, XXVII (November, 1943), 86-87.

Suggests that a course in field ecology should be required of prospective biology teachers if actual teaching practice in biology is to reinforce the accepted conception of biological study as the study of living organisms.

MATHEMATICS³

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162. BLACKISTON, NANETTE R. "The In-service Training of Mathematics Teachers," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (May, 1944), 202-5.

Makes specific suggestions for in-service training activities of interest to administrators, supervisors, and department chairmen.

163. BRESLICH, E. R. "Influence of the War on the Teaching of Secondary Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (November, 1944), 291-300. Discusses possible future trends in the teaching of mathematics.

164. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "Essential Mathematics for Minimum Army

³ See also Item 479 (Blair) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1944, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Needs," *School Review*, LII (October, 1944), 484-92.

Points out the need for reorganizing instruction in mathematics and makes suggestions for improvement.

165. CARNAHAN, WALTER H. "High School Mathematics after the War," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (October, 1944), 243-47.

Considers certain characteristics of an adequate program and of effective teaching in mathematics.

166. CHRISTOFFERSON, H. C. "Mathematics That Functions in War and Peace," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (February, 1944), 51-56.

Illustrates a plan for making equations and formulas significant to students in the teaching of algebra.

167. COOKE, NELSON M. "Mathematics for Electricity and Radio," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVI (December, 1943), 339-45.

A summary of the schedule and instructional content and materials used in the radio schools of the Navy.

168. DAVIS, H. T. "Archimedes and Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (February, 1944), 136-45.

A historical sketch giving some of the contributions of Archimedes to mathematics.

169. "First Report of the Commission on Postwar Plans," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (May, 1944), 226-32.

A preliminary statement of a committee appointed by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics and assigned the task of planning mathematics programs for secondary schools in the postwar period.

170. HEWITT, GLENN F. "Advertising Solid Geometry with Spectacular Topics,"

School Science and Mathematics, XLIV (October, 1944), 633-36.

Offers constructive suggestions for enriching the course in mathematics.

171. JERBERT, A. R. "Think of a Number," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (October, 1944), 624-28.

Suggests the game approach as a basis for the introduction to beginning algebra.

172. JOHNSON, J. T. "The Metric System," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (November, 1944), 717-21.

Urges action to hasten the exclusive use of the metric system of weights and measures in the United States.

173. JONES, PHILLIP S. "Early American Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (January, 1944), 3-11.

Contrasts content and methods found in the three earliest American textbooks in geometry with one another and with modern textbooks.

174. LIEBER, HUGH GRAY, and LIEBER, LILLIAN R. *The Education of T. C. Mils: The Celebrated Man in the Street*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1944 (revised). Pp. 230.

A strange yet most interesting book on modern mathematics and mathematical thinking, filled with clever drawings. This book should be available to every teacher and should be in every school library.

175. LIPPITT, VERNON G. "The Teaching of Mathematics as Viewed by an Engineer," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (June, 1944), 505-10.

Makes a plea for relating mathematical symbols and equations to physical quantities and realities.

176. LLOYD, DANIEL B. "Developing the Principle of Continuity in the Teaching of Euclidean Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (October, 1944), 258-62.

Describes the use of a flexible diagram, made on a board by using rubber bands and push-pins, in teaching geometry.

177. NYBERG, JOSEPH A. "Notes from a Mathematics Classroom," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (February, 1944), 155-58.

Gives helpful hints to the classroom teacher. Similar articles by the same author are presented in other issues through the year.

178. POTTER, MARY A. "In Defense of Donald Dull," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (May, 1944), 195-201.

Constructive suggestions for teaching classes of slow-learning pupils.

179. SITOMER, HARRY. "The Place of Experimentation in Plane Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (March, 1944), 122-24.

Gives hints for making use of measurement in teaching plane geometry.

180. TATE, M. W. "Notes on Approximate Computation," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (May, 1944), 425-31.

Urges the teaching of computation with approximate numbers in the Junior and Senior courses in science and mathematics and offers constructive suggestions.

181. VAN WAYNEN, M. "How Shall Geometry Be Taught?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (February, 1944), 64-67.

Defends the use of nongeometric materials of current interest in teaching the characteristics of deductive reasoning in geometry.

182. YORKE, GERTRUDE CUSHING. "A Study of Weights and Measures," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVII (March, 1944), 125-28.

Summarizes studies showing the extent to which the metric system of weights and measures is used in continental Europe and in South America.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FRANCIS F. POWERS

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183. BLAYNE, THORNTON C., and KAULFERS, WALTER V. "A Validated Grade-Placement Outline of the Basic Essentials of Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1944), 365-73.
Outlines the basic grammar essentials for the first three years of high-school Spanish.
184. BUSHNELL, MARJORIE R. "The Army Technique in the High School Class," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 190-91.
Describes the use of Army foreign-language methodology in high-school classes.
185. COUTANT, VICTOR. "Shall We Rationalize Modern-Language Election?" *School Review*, LII (April, 1944), 228-32.
Advocates establishment of a central agency, perhaps as a part of the United States Office of Education, to co-ordinate and release impartial data on vocational needs in foreign languages to aid in student counseling.
186. DOYLE, HENRY GRATTAN. "Learning Languages in a Hurry—but Not by Miracles," *School and Society*, LVIII (December 18, 1943), 465-67.
Discloses conclusively that the "miracle" method of the army language program is based on drill, intensive study, and hard work and is not in reality a "quickie" method for injecting foreign languages.
187. EAGON, ANGELO. "Military Languages in Highschool," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIII (February, 1944), 50.
Describes an experiment in a high-school foreign-language class in mastering military terms.
188. ECKSTAT, CHARLES. "Modernizing Language Teaching," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (January, 1944), 56-57.
Lists some basic crimes in foreign-language teaching with recommendations for their solution.
189. FLORES, ISOLINA R. "Vocational Significance and Tendencies of Foreign Language Teaching in High Schools," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (October, 1944), 472-75.
Stresses the vocational importance of foreign languages in view of the global aspect of world affairs.
190. FOLEY, LOUIS. "An Unorthodox View of Latin," *School Review*, LII (February, 1944), 98-104.
Criticizes the "selling" of Latin on ill-founded arguments and sets forth some basic concepts of classical study.
191. HUTCHINSON, MARK E. "The Wartime Language Program as Related to Post-war Language Teaching," *School and Society*, LX (July 15, 1944), 33-36.
Examines the objectives and methodology of the military foreign-language program in terms of normal foreign-language teaching.
192. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "Wartime Development in Modern-Language Achievement Testing," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 136-50.
Describes the shift in modern-language instruction toward the aural-oral objective and gives some tests for measuring achievement in aural comprehension and oral fluency.
193. MCCOY, MILDRED O. "My Experience with a First Year Latin Class," *High School Journal*, XXVI (November-December, 1943), 226-28.
Illustrates how negativism toward Latin might be counteracted.
194. MILLER, MINNIE M. "To Teach and To Learn," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1944), 378-80.
Sets forth the why and the how for the modern-language teacher to be "modern."

195. MYRON, HERBERT B., JR. "Translation Made Tolerable," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (May, 1944), 404-8.
Suggests methods of vitalizing the translation of French to English and discounts the conversational trend in terms of adequacy for intercultural understanding.
196. NOYES, ERNEST. "So You're Going To Learn Spanish," *Hispania*, XXVII (February, 1944), 66-68.
Explains the uselessness of trying to select a particular type of Spanish to be studied since there are geographical variations in spoken Spanish just as in English and other languages.
197. PARKER, CLIFFORD S. "Notes on French Usage: II. Modified Feminine Geographical Names," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 254-57.
Discusses current usage, based on an examination of twenty grammars, of the translation of "in" or "to" before modified feminine geographical names.
198. PEACOCK, VERA L. "Le Revers de la médaille," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1944), 374-77.
Reviews some fundamental principles of language-teaching based on a teacher's experience as a student.
199. PEI, MARIO A. "What Languages Are Our Soldiers Up Against?" *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (October, 1944), 463-71.
Describes the practical use of foreign languages to the fighting man.
200. RAGG, LONSDALE. "Classical Memories on Italian Battlefields," *Contemporary Review*, CLXVI (September, 1944), 164-67.
Reviews for the Latin student some of the writings of Vergil, Horace, Cicero, and others in terms of World War II campaigns in Italy.
201. ROSALDO, RENATO. "An Air Vocabulary of 100 Words in Spanish and Portuguese," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 155-58.
Supplements a previous compilation of French and German air vocabularies.
202. "Science Comes to Languages," *Fortune*, XXX (August, 1944), 132-35, 236, 239-40.
Discusses at length the objectives and methodology of the linguistic scientist and his highly successful contribution to the army training program.
203. SHEARS, LAMBERT A. "The Case for Systematic Drill in Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (January, 1944), 50-53.
Gives an excellent brief for the rigid drill method in elementary foreign-language instruction.
204. SPURR, FREDERICK S. "Public Speaking in a Foreign Language," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (May, 1944), 422-24.
Describes a unique method used in Spanish, French, and Latin classes for developing accuracy of pronunciation, self-confidence, and interest in the subject.
205. VAUDREUIL, BLANCHE. "The Two Year General Course," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (February, 1944), 113-16.
Outlines the general two-year French course at the Stamford (Connecticut) High School, the aims being to develop the ability to read French and to gain good pronunciation and intonation.
206. WHITE, EMILIE MARGARET. "Foreign Languages—for War and Peace," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXIII (February, 1944), 49.
Explains the pre-induction offerings in French, German, and Spanish for seventeen-year-olds in the Washington, D.C., schools.
207. WILLS, ELIDA. "Environmental Vocabulary," *Modern Language Journal*, XXVIII (March, 1944), 239-45.

Describes a Spanish unit on environmental vocabulary as used in a Texas school. (All children in the Texas Schools from Grade III to Grade VIII are taught to speak Spanish.)

GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER
University of Chicago

208. BRADBURY, LEAUEVA M. "Literacy in Geography," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXVI (March, 1944), 333-35.
Discusses the values of the interpretive type of geography in contributing to the development of a stable society of high spiritual order.
209. CHARLTON, DONALD T. "Physiography Reports for Duty," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVI (April, 1944), 32-37.
Presents statements from members of the armed forces and others as evidence of the need for more physiography in secondary schools.
210. CUTSHALL, ALDEN. "Worth-while High School Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (September, 1944), 223-28.
Suggests a curriculum consisting of two full-year courses.
211. ENGELHARDT, N. L., JR. "Maps and Charts for the Air Age," *School Executive*, LXIV (September, 1944), 68-70.
With the aid of photographs describes the air globe, the project globe, the map projection trainer, and other aids in visualizing a spherical world.
212. FIFIELD, RUSSELL H. "The Geostrategy of Location," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (November, 1944), 297-303.
Discusses the way in which the significance of the location of given features varies with technological change and cites specific examples.
213. FRENCH, W. W. "Outdoor Geography in the Classroom," *Journal of Education* (London), LXXVI (September, 1944), 429-31.
Offers excellent suggestions concerning geographical field work centered on the study of both natural and man-made landscape features.
214. HUTTER, HARRY K. "Mistakes Made in Geography by Beginning Air Corps Cadets," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (March, 1944), 108-11.
Summarizes the results of a test calling for simple, basic ideas of direction, latitude and longitude, and the identification of continents and oceans.
215. KESO, EDWARD E. "The Relationship of Mathematics and Geography," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (October, 1944), 598-600.
Lists specific ways in which mathematical knowledge contributes to geographical understanding.
216. KING, J. CARL. "The Correlation of History and Geography in the Lower School," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXII (December, 1943), 342-46.
Shows how history is related to general geography, physical geography, political geography, economic geography, and social-cultural geography.
217. KUSCH, MONICA H. "The Geography of Rationing," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIV (January, 1944), 46-50.
Gives a demonstration lesson for junior high school pupils.
218. MEYER, A. H. "For Better Geography Teaching," *Nation's Schools*, XXXIV (September, 1944), 24.
Announces the publication of Professional Paper No. 6 of the National Council of Geography Teachers, entitled *Geography Master Standards Pattern as a Solution of the High School Geography Teacher Training and Certification Problem*.

219. POOLE, SIDMAN P. "Geopolitik—Science or Magic," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (January, 1944), 1-12.
- Sketches the background and concepts of Geopolitik and gives an "American answer."
220. REID, J. NORMAN. "Geography Begins at Home," *School* (Secondary Edition), XXXII (January, 1944), 439-42.
- Cites the role of the study of local conditions and activities in tenth-grade vocational, economic, and commercial geography and indicates some specific pupil activities involved.
221. SHEARER, M. H. "Air-Age Physical Geography in Our Secondary Schools," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (September, 1944), 213-22.
- Makes clear the value of physical geography as a laboratory science and gives samples of specific practical problems.
222. VAN CLEEF, EUGENE. "Vocational Aspects of Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (October, 1944), 241-46.
- Tells of specific types of work for which geographic training helps prepare students.
223. WARMAN, HENRY J. "Is 'Global Geography' the Answer?" *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (November, 1944), 303-6.
- Warns of the dangers of "veneer" in global geography and advises "keeping our feet on the ground."
224. WHITAKER, J. R. "Human Forces Remaking the Face of the Earth," *Social Education*, VII (November, 1943), 301-6.
- Considers the impact on geographic study and teaching of man-made changes on the surface of the earth.
225. WHITAKER, J. R. "Design for High School Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLIII (November, 1944), 281-96.
- Discusses the needs that geography can meet, the content and organization of high-school geography, its place in the high-school program, minimum equipment, and teacher qualifications.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDUCATING YOUTH IN A DYNAMIC SOCIAL ORDER.—In recent years many studies have appeared which relate to the problem of providing secondary education adequate for contemporary times. Some of these have attacked the problem by placing major emphasis on an analysis of the nature of our social order, pointing out the demands that the social order is making on our educational system. Other studies have approached the problem from the standpoint of the several theories of secondary education, calling attention to the peculiar merits of each in meeting the needs of the day. A recent publication¹ has attempted to provide somewhat of a synthesis of the problem by presenting a critical examination of three approaches to secondary education in the light of the ability of each to make provision for an adequate youth education.

Considerable space in the volume is given to an account of the forces which have contributed to the development of the secondary school as it exists today. Originally, in an era of expanding industry and of great land wealth, the unitary common school developed as an institution providing a channel through which personal success was to be achieved, and the function of the school, beyond providing literacy for all people, was predominantly college preparatory. Specific preparation for pursuits other than college attendance was provided by other agencies, such as the home, the store, and

the factory. The secondary school, however, has failed to keep step as powerful social forces have changed the setting in which the school finds itself—and this failure appears to be the critical theme running through Norberg's volume. As American life became highly industrialized, the demand grew for skills different from the three R's; in a period of economic contraction a dual system of education threatened to develop when federally supported programs of vocational education, and later the educational programs of the governmental youth agencies, asked for equal status with the traditional college-preparatory curriculum. The apparent inadequacy of the traditional curriculum in the face of insistent social forces has given rise to a variety of new approaches to secondary education.

The most significant of these new approaches is the progressive movement. A chapter is devoted to the essential characteristics of progressivism and to what the author conceives to be its peculiar ability and limitation in meeting the needs of the contemporary social order. The "core" curriculum is examined as a means of providing for the needs of youth in a continuing and meaningful manner. However, the author contends that progressivism as it has developed does not have the answer. "The problem of progressive education in the secondary school is precisely that the activity program is confronted by stubborn social conditions which are essentially frustrating to the normal activities of youth" (p. 67).

The next chapter is devoted to a discussion of the subject-matter curriculum. Bagley's "essentialist" point of view is examined, and some evaluation is made of the degree of success found in obtaining a func-

¹ Kenneth D. Norberg, *American Democracy and Secondary Education: A Study of Some Tendencies and Conceptions of Youth Education in the United States*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 886. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. vi+130. \$2.10.

tional education through the acquisition of those learnings considered essential for all when presented through formalized subject-matter courses. The author feels that "the major weakness in Bagley's case for a 'subject' curriculum is not that he makes a case for essential content in education, and not primarily that he favors an adult-planned curriculum, but rather that the ultimate method by which the content of the curriculum is to be determined is not made clear" (p. 81).

Attention is directed in chapter iv to the "intellectualistic" approach to the problem, its criticism of progressivism, the function and philosophy of general education, and the importance of the social structure of the curriculum.

In the concluding chapter an appraisal is made of the tendencies in, and conceptions of, secondary education as set forth in the foregoing chapters. As a result of his analysis of the case, the author proposes:

A more suitable curriculum for American youth should be based on a rounded program of functional activities leading on gradually and continuously to adult status in the affairs of community life. This would mean, among other things, that significant occupational experiences of some kind should be provided for all youth during the period of secondary education [p. 112].

The proposal is challenging and intriguing in its implications. Work-study programs, combining traditional academic programs and work experiences, have been found rather frequently in the history of higher education. Yet this proposal, that of providing at the secondary level a functional-occupational ("occupational" being used in its broadest sense) education for the youth of a democratic industrial society, is provocative. The volume commends itself for its stimulation to those seeking the best possible education for American youth.

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SYMPOSIUM ON THE ARTS.—In recent years there has been developing in the field of art education a trend toward integrating all the arts within a common area of study. In some progressive schools, notably at the college level, courses have been organized which aim to present a comprehensive view of the several arts and their relationship to one another.

A recently published book¹ makes a contribution to this type of study by including a brief interpretative introduction to nine of the so-called "fine arts." In chapter i, "The Realm of Art," Max Schoen, professor of psychology and education at Carnegie Institute of Technology and editor of the symposium, presents the hypothesis that "a painting, poem, or piece of music fails to fulfil its function as art unless it is a source of enjoyment to someone. . . . If it is pleasant it is both good and true; if not, it is ignored and nothing is lost" (pp. 12-13).

The editor terminates his introductory section by the following statement:

This book offers the reader the means for attaining his orientation in the realm of art by a careful study of what those who have a right to speak have to say about the art which is their main interest because it is the art to which they are most highly responsive [pp. 30-31].

Then follow nine chapters on the various branches of the fine arts, each by an outstanding man in the field. The titles of the chapters are "The Enjoyment of Painting," "The Why and Wherefore of Sculpture," "Aesthetics in Architecture," "The Industrial Arts," "Poetry," "The Drama and Theater," "Enjoying the Novel," "The Movies," and "Music."

A summary of the requisites for aesthetic enjoyment is given as follows:

- (1) An intelligent conception of the nature of art in general and of each art in particular;
- (2) A sensitivity for the material of an art which varies in degree from person to person;

¹ *The Enjoyment of the Arts*. Edited by Max Schoen. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1944. Pp. 336. \$5.00.

(3) A knowledge of one's own taste or capacity in any one art [p. 76].

These principles have been observed quite generally by the nine co-operating subject-matter authors of the book.

All the authors seem aware of the bewildering maze of schools of thought and the controversial issues which result from attempts to develop a sound appreciation of the arts. For example, the editor offers the following suggestion:

He who is bewildered by the schools is responsible for his own bewilderment through his failure to recognize that schools only provide him with the opportunity to chart his own way on the sea of thought. He need not unbutton his mind for all the winds of doctrines to raise a storm in it; he need only open it to them to stir it into activity. The intelligent person uses these conflicting views to arrive at a view of his own [p. 24].

In the last chapter, "The Problem of Criticism," the author states:

It can easily be seen that, unless all men like the same things and approve of the same things, criticism will inevitably be various [p. 305].

The critic need not announce his judgment of the greatness or littleness of works of art, for such judgments can be made more adequately by each spectator for himself [p. 327].

The authors who discuss the several divisions of the subject seem to refute this concept, for they do lay foundations for judgment and, by so doing, make definite contributions to students and teachers who wish to enjoy the arts and who would bring all the arts into closer educational unity. The book offers the reader the means for his orientation in the realm of art as a whole and in each art in particular.

WILLIAM G. WHITFORD

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DEMOCRACY IN ACTION.—Someone has said that democracy does not grow and develop unaided but that it must be carefully nurtured and tended if it is to live. This

lesson is one we still have to learn, for too many of our people have no true concept of our American democracy or of their obligation to contribute to its further development. A recent textbook on *Citizenship*¹ "attempts not only to make clear, but to implement, the faith and purpose of democracy and to offer to the schools of the nation a program of practical democratic instruction" (p. iii).

The authors attempt to present all phases of American life in such a way as to give the reader a broad and comprehensive view of democracy in operation. Emphasis is placed on conditions as they actually exist rather than on a highly idealistic but distorted picture. If there is idealism in the book, it is of a practical nature in that it stresses the high purposes and plans of America, the great vision which our forefathers had when they planned, builded, fought, and died. At the same time the book shows that many of our fine ideals have not materialized and that American youth have a tremendous job to do. The student will understand clearly that there are many problems, many difficult issues, many disturbing injustices to be overcome if America is to achieve her destiny. This task is the task of citizenship, the real job for which our schools should be preparing the youth of the nation. The aim of the book is not to teach "civics" but "to provide a working formula for citizenship and citizenship instruction" (p. iv).

The book is divided into five parts, beginning with a presentation of our country and its resources and ending with a discussion of the problems that lie ahead. Part One is entitled "How Can We Plan for Citizenship in American Democracy?" Two problems are raised: the problem of satisfying our basic economic needs and the problem of providing rules for group life. These two issues are considered to be fundamental to all fields of human endeavor and to underlie

¹ Stanley Johnson and William M. Alexander, *Citizenship*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1944. Pp. viii + 498. \$1.80.

every part of our lives as individuals and as a nation.

Part Two, "What Are the Goals and Plans of American Democracy?" considers the general goals and plans for meeting the two problems discussed in Part One. Governmental and economic activities are seen as a means of meeting these problems. In addition, we have developed machinery to achieve other goals of a social nature, such as family life, community organization, health, education, protection of life and property, social welfare, and conservation of natural resources.

Parts Three and Four are devoted to a description of the machinery of government and industry by means of which the people of America have tried to achieve their goals. It is seen that there is not complete agreement as to how we shall reach our objectives but that, in setting up the machinery of government and industry, there are many factors to be considered and many groups to be satisfied. This is the task of citizenship—to find the means of solving our two fundamental problems to the satisfaction of the great mass of the people. A very basic issue is discussed in this connection, namely: What will be the form of our democracy in the future? Shall we "revert to a thoroughgoing capitalistic democracy," shall we "become a socialistic democracy," or shall we remain as we are now—"somewhere between these extremes" (p. 320)?

Part Five, "What Problems Must We Plan For Now?" discusses the problems of the present and the future in terms of four fundamental issues. First, each person must fit himself to make a living—a matter of preparing for, and of finding, the right job. Second, we face the task of reducing poverty by establishing a better distribution of income. Third, we are tremendously concerned with the problem of freeing our world of the threat of war. Finally, all citizens are confronted with changes brought about by the war. Planning for these changes is a necessary part of planning for the future.

In conclusion, it is well to point out that this book attempts to set up practical activities designed to give the student an opportunity to practice citizenship. The book offers a practical plan for developing citizenship in that "it presents not merely the traditional subject matter of civics, but a working plan for pupil-participation in citizenship in school and community now and beyond school days in adult life" (p. iii).

THOMAS H. ALLEN

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NEWS-WRITING TECHNIQUES AND PRACTICES.—Journalism is a comparatively new field of work for secondary-school pupils, but it seems to be gaining in prominence as a part of the high-school curriculum. Sometimes taught as a unit within a course of English, sometimes taught as a separate subject, news-writing in connection with student publications is an important vehicle for the teaching of composition, as well as for laying the foundation for a writing career. Journalism also makes a valuable contribution to youth development because it demands use of critical judgment, depends on co-operative effort, and has a practical, real-life interest often lacking in academic subjects. A new edition¹ of one of the textbooks designed for high-school classes in journalism is conveniently adapted to the varying requirements of short courses, a unit of instruction, or the news-writing activities associated with student publications.

There are relatively few teachers in high schools who are specifically trained for work in journalism, and many teachers obtain training in journalism largely from in-service responsibilities. Such a book as the one being reviewed would be valuable for teachers of limited training or experience. In those schools where journalism is taught as a unit in another course, this book could furnish

¹ Anne Lane Savidge and Gunnar Horn, *Handbook for High School Journalism*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1944 (revised and enlarged). Pp. 134. \$1.50.

the basis for the work in journalism. In schools where journalism is confined largely to unorganized activities, the book would be very useful as a reference book. Even teachers of extended training and experience in journalism will find it useful as a ready reference and as an outline for a course of study. However, it is merely a handbook and probably would be insufficient for a teacher entirely unacquainted with the field.

The text falls into three major divisions. First, there is a syllabus for high-school journalism in outline form. This section outlines a complete course of study from "The Objectives of a Journalism Course" to "Journalism as a Vocation." This section would be useful to both experienced and inexperienced teachers in setting up a course in journalism or a journalism unit as a part of another course. While the outline is complete, it would have to be expanded and clarified in class. An untrained teacher would find it useful but would have to turn to other sources for additional material. Each topic in this section is followed by a short reading list and by questions for class discussion.

The second section is devoted to an extensive bibliography on journalism. The

bibliography is classified under such headings as "Journalism as a Profession," "History of Journalism," "Printing," "Reporting and News Writing," and many others. Each of these major classifications is further subdivided into several categories.

The remainder of the book is concerned with the mechanical aspects of journalism. In this section are found such topics as "The Anatomy of Headlines," "Newspaper Make-up," "Rules of Style for Headline Writing," "A General Manual of Style," and "Copy-reader's and Proofreader's Marks." Three chapters in this section give examples of headline setups most suitable for high-school and college papers and offer advice as to the use of the various models.

This volume is probably most useful because of its conciseness. The bibliography is a feature that adds much to the book's value, especially because the references listed are classified according to topics. Any school interested in journalism should find that this handbook will make a worth-while contribution to the professional library.

NELSON B. HENRY

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ARMSTRONG, W. EARL; HOLLIS, ERNEST V.; and DAVIS, HELEN E. *The College and Teacher Education*. Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. x+312. \$2.50.

COOPER, RUSSELL M., and COLLABORATORS OF 28 COLLEGES. *Better Colleges—Better Teachers*. Published by the North Central Association Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts. New York: Distributed by the Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. viii+168. \$1.25.

Higher Education in the Postwar Period. Compiled and edited by John Dale Russell. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. XVI. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1944. Pp. vi+170. \$2.00.

KATZ, ELIAS. *Children's Preferences for Traditional and Modern Paintings*. Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Philosophy, Columbia University. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. x+102. \$1.50.

MURPHY, LOIS BARCLAY, and LADD, HENRY. *Emotional Factors in Learning*. New York:

- Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. x+404. \$3.50.
- REAVIS, WILLIAM C., and COOPER, DAN H. *Evaluation of Teacher Merit in City School Systems*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 59. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1945. Pp. vi+138. \$1.50.
- RONDILEAU, ADRIAN. *Education for Installment Buying*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 902. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. iv+70. \$1.85.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BROENING, ANGELA M., FLAGG, WILLIAM J., FLEAGLE, BENJAMIN E., HOWARD, ETHEL, and LITZ, FRANCIS E. *Competence in English: I*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944. Pp. x+266. \$1.40.
- CRAF, JOHN R. *Invasion Leaders: American Military Leaders, 1942-1944*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1944. Pp. 40. \$0.50.
- PACKARD, LEONARD O. *Workbook To Accompany "Our Air-Age World."* New York: Macmillan Co., 1944. Pp. vi+136.
- PANTH, BHOLA D. *Consider the Calendar*. A Publication of the Bureau of Educational Research in Science, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944. Pp. 138.
- TRIGGS, FRANCES ORALIND, and ROBBINS, EDWIN W. *Improve Your Spelling*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1944. Pp. x+126. \$1.00.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- Annual Report of the General Education Board, 1943*. New York: General Education Board. Pp. x+108.
- Education for All American Youth Is All America's Business*. Washington 6: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the

American Association of School Administrators. Pp. 6.

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